THE UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA

THE SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE JUNIOR HIGH

BY

SAMUEL HORNING ZIEGLER

A THESIS

PRESENTED TO THE FACULTY OF THE GRADUATE SCHOOL IN PART FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN EDUCATION

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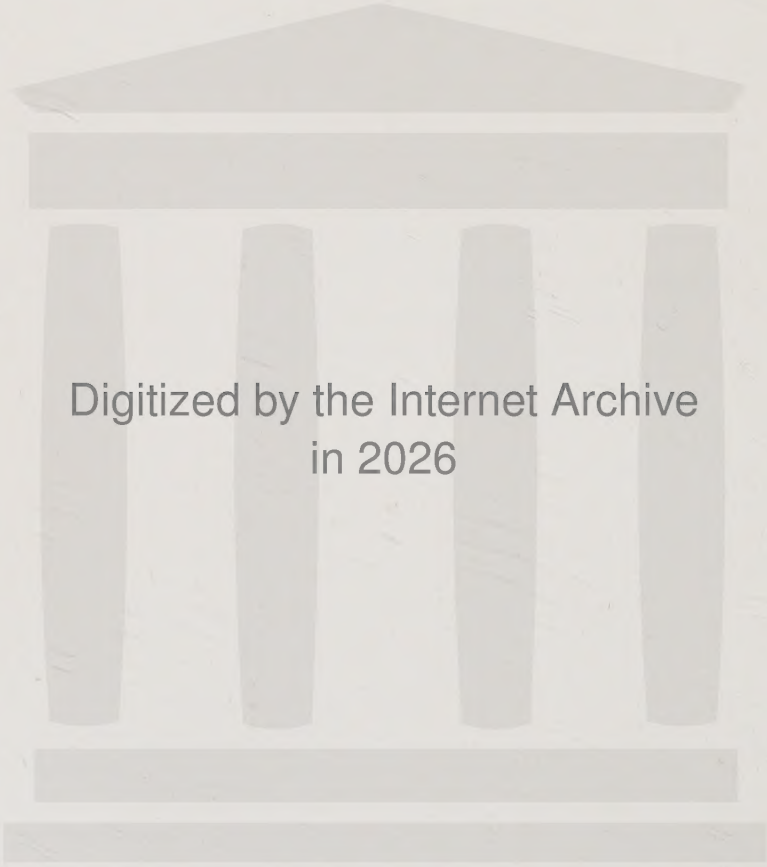
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THE SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

PART I. AIMS OF THE COURSE.

The adjustments to be made with children so as to fit them into their physical and social environment have long received the attention and consideration of thoughtful persons. The Greek philosophers directed attention to the need for a definite aim in this adjustment. "Education," said Plato,[a] "must fashion the life of the individual in an all-round manner. It must nourish every inherent potency, bringing all his faculties into a harmoniously developed whole. It must give to the body and to the soul all the perfection of which they are capable. There exists in embryo or perhaps in potentia in the human spirit ideal attributes for which education must provide the opportunity for development. The purpose of all study and training is to bring the soul up out of the cave of ignorance where only the shadows of real things are perceived, into the open day where it may behold the true light." The idea of virtue was emphasized by Aristotle.[b] "Education should help each individual to attain the highest degree of happiness by living a virtuous life as a citizen of a virtuous State." The English philosopher Locke is impressed with the same idea,[c] "'Tis virtue, then, direct virtue, which is the hard and valuable part to be aimed at in Education. . . This is the solid and substantial Good which Tutors should not only read Lectures and talk of, but the Labor and Art of Education should furnish the Mind with, and fasten there, and never cease till the young Man has a true Relish of it and plac'd his Strength, his Glory and his Pleasure in it." And the necessity of seriously considering the problem and not leaving it to chance is seen by the German philosopher. "Man is the only creature that must be educated. By education we mean care, discipline and instruction, including

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[a]Plato, Republic, Bk. vii, p. 502.
[b]Aristotle, Politics, Bk. vii, p. 17.
[c]Locke, Thoughts on Education.

culture. Man is thus Babe, Pupil, and Scholar."[d] "In the widest sense of the word," says Bain, "a man is educated either for good or for evil, by everything that he experiences, from the cradle to the grave. But in the more limited and usual sense the term Education is confined to the efforts made, of a set purpose, to train men in a particular way—the effort of the grown up part of the community to inform the intellect and mould the character of the young."[e] "The men of affairs will tell you," O'Shea informs us, "that the school should equip the pupil with the means of getting on in life; of earning his daily bread. Another man, who is not so much concerned with industry and money . . . . asserts that the school exists to train the mind, to discipline the faculties, to make perception and memory and reason keen and accurate and faithful. Another will assure you that the end to be aimed at in all education is culture."[f] "What then, is education, and how are we to educate? As yet there is no agreement on these points. Men are not agreed as to what the young should learn with a view either to perfect training or the best life. It is not agreed whether education is to aim at the development of the intellect or of the moral character. Nor is it clear whether, in order to bring about these results, we are to train in what leads to virtue, in what is useful for ordinary life, or in abstract science."[g] We are not yet agreed as to what the young should learn. The problem is one still in dispute and still demanding the most careful consideration. The problem goes deeper than the mere question of education—it goes into the very foundations of human being. A brief historical summary of the evolution of primary purpose may help us. In the days of Homer we find the tutor of Achilles stating his theory. "For this end he (Peleus) sent me forth, to teach thee all these things: to be a speaker of wise words and a doer of valiant deeds."[h] This concept of the educational function served until the other-worldliness of the Middle Ages

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[d]Kant, Lecture Notes on Pedagogy (Rink).
[e]Bain, Education as a Science. P. 3.
[f]O'Shea, Education as an adjustment.
[g]Aristotle, Politics. Bk. viii.
[h]Homer, Iliad. Bk. ix, 443.

developed a new point of view. Theology in a narrow, restricted, dogmatic sense was then for several hundred years the goal of educational endeavor. "The cloistral discipline aims to withdraw men's thought," says Professor Davidson, "from civic life, and from Nature with its manifold phenomena, and to fix them upon the supernatural and the changeless."[1]

With the cessation of the Norse invasions and the dying out of the Crusading spirit, a new point of view begins to develop. The world was found to be well worth study. Man in his social and civic relations received the attention of the scholar ; an attention aroused and stimulated by the discovery and recovery of the Greek manuscripts. The formalism of Scholasticism was displaced by the glowing philosophies and speculations of the Athenian thinkers. This necessitated a readjustment of subjects taught. This readjustment, in unskilled hands, curiously enough, took the path of concentration upon language rather than upon the thoughts expressed in that language. The many who sought learning were pitilessly drilled in linguistic formalism. This drilling led to wonderful results on the part of the few, and almost nothing on the part of the many. Yet, as we shall see, the aim of these educators was fine—the mistake lay in the means employed to realize that ideal. This dominance of the Classics persisted for a long time, and its advocates have not been vanquished wholly even yet. The reason for this is perhaps that the languages have an actual, real and vital contribution to make in the educational field, even though they may not do all that was originally claimed for them.

Meanwhile, outside of the schools there was developing a new educational tendency. The beginnings of this development may be credited to Sir Francis Bacon or even to his earlier namesake, Friar Roger Bacon. Nature began to arouse the curiosity of men. They began to detect sequences which they soon sought to state in the form of general laws. The wonderful system of "questions to nature," as we may call laboratory experimentation, began that development which to-day has attained such

[1]Davidson, History of Education. P. 161.

gigantic proportions, and which has revealed so much to inquiring minds.

Herbert Spencer, aroused by the way in which the schools neglected Science, and by the contributions Science was making to human welfare, proposed an entire recasting of the course of study so as to base it upon science almost exclusively.[j] This idea of education based upon the sciences attracted the attention of others besides Spencer. Professor Huxley ironically criticizes the old linguistic drill, offering to realize all its disciplinary benefits by dropping the languages and taking the pupil through a disciplinary course in palæontology instead.[k] Former President Eliot of Harvard professes to see not only mechanical and material forces, but moral forces as well, developed in the pursuit of a scientific training. In America the founding of Cornell, Lehigh, Johns Hopkins, grew out of this tendency.

But the scientists were not allowed to monopolize the discussion, or to occupy the field without fighting. Parallel with the growth of the new science we find two other tendencies obtruding themselves upon the attention of the schoolman.

The Industrial Revolution had destroyed many of the handicrafts and with them the method of training apprentices by which the old system was perpetuated. Hence there has arisen a demand for vocational training. Franklin saw this, and his "Franklin Institute" is an attempt to meet the conditions. Stephen Girard, half a century later, devoted his entire fortune to this cause. Other millionaires—as Williamson and Packer, have done the same since, and the movement has taken a strong hold on the public school system. And finally, the last one hundred and fifty years have seen an astonishing growth in democratic self-government among all peoples of the earth. This movement has had several important reactions upon the educational aspirations of these peoples. At the time the American Declaration of Independence was adopted, one of the Signers, Doctor Benjamin Rush, of Philadelphia, wrote to a friend: "The business of Education has acquired a new complexion by

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[j]Herbert Spencer, Education I, "What Knowledge is of Most Worth?"
[k]Huxley, Science and Education. P. 98f.

the independence of our country. It is only by rendering knowledge universal that a republican form of government can be preserved.'' Thomas Arnold, the great Headmaster of Rugby, writes: ''Every man, from the highest to the lowest, has two businesses. One is his own particular calling to which he looks for a livelihood. The other is his general calling which he has in common with the rest of the people, namely, the calling of a citizen and a man.''[m]

A great American teacher says:[n] ''The education of a King is planned with the main purpose of fitting him to govern well. It is too much to ask that the education of every citizen of a republic shall be planned with the main purpose of fitting him to govern well; but it is sadly defective if it is not planned with some reference to just that thing. He is a sharer in the power of sovereignty. His vote is as powerful as any other man's. His education has been a failure if it has not taught him the principles on which he should be exerted. While only one of many kings, he must be brought to feel that, in a sense, his fellow citizens are his people.''

These newer concepts of education and its purpose brought about changes in the machinery of education. No longer could this important function remain dependent upon private munificence, or even upon the Church. The growth of democracy stimulated the idea of schools supported by public taxation. This idea prevailed against all cries of ''paternalism,'' and, in the liberal democracies of the world to-day, may be said to be almost universal. The democratic concept also influenced decisively the type of work to be offered to the pupils of these schools.

While it would be interesting to discuss the general aims of a complete education further, we are limited to a discussion of a particular field as presented in a particular type of the public schools. The Bureau of Education has summed up the aims of the public schools. After considering this summary, we will

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[m]Thomas Arnold, Miscellaneous Works, Education of the Middle Classes. P. 375.

[n]Simon E. Baldwin, Education and Citizenship.

scrutinize the aims of the Junior High School, and those of the social studies, and attempt to select those which seem to be in common for further consideration. The summary of the Bureau lists the objectives of the public school as seven in number.[o]

1. The health of the Student, 2. Command of the Fundamental Processes, 3. Preparation for worthy home membership, 4. Preparation for a Vocation, 5. Development of a high type of Citizenship, 6. Preparation for the proper use of leisure time, 7. Development of Ethical Concepts, or rather Character development. The seven objectives may be summarized into four for our purposes:

1. Preparation for economic adjustment.
2. Preparation for social adjustment.
3. Preparation for future educational achievement.
4. Preparation for wise use of leisure time.

Having stated the general aims of public and tax supported education let us see what the aims of the Junior High School are. It is granted, of course, that the objectives enumerated above apply to the Junior High School.

The list which follows, therefore, gives the reasons why a new type of school was found necessary, rather than an amplification of the functions of existing schools. To summarize from Dr. Briggs,[p] "The Junior High School aims to correct defects in the older system arising out of (a) Organization, since the new type of schools purposes to segregate the pupils from both the Elementary and the High Schools, by a consolidation of the intermediate grades. (b) Purpose—since the new type attempts deliberately to retain pupils in school, to explore individual interest, aptitudes and capacities, to make the transition to the higher school more gradual—less abrupt, to attempt vocational and prevocational training, to economize time and to meet the community needs more fully. (c) Individual differences of the pupils, since the new type of school aims to provide more ade-

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[o]Report of the Reviewing Committee of the National Education Association on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, U. S. Bureau of Education. 1918 Bulletin 35.

[p]Briggs, J. H. Educational Administration and Supervision, 1919. Vol. VI, p. 182.

quately for the period of adolescence, to offer more widely differentiated curriculums, to group the pupils in more nearly homogeneous groups, and to promote by subjects instead of by classics. (d) Methods of teaching—since the new school has departmental teaching, supervised study, and vitalized instruction. Initiative on the part of the pupil is more carefully encouraged and more consideration is given to his social interests. (e) Subject matter—as we see the new school attempting to reorganize the subject matter, eliminate needless or useless matter from the course of study and, at the same time, enrich it and make it more flexible. (f) Guidance of pupils—since the Junior High School undertakes both vocational and educational guidance for its pupils.

The aims of the Junior High School, as here enumerated, place a great burden upon the shoulders of the persons responsible for the course of study. The social studies course needs overhauling in the light of almost everyone of the above mentioned aims. The social studies are understood to be those whose subject matter relates directly to the organization and development of human society, and to man as a member of social groups.[q] The social studies, as presented in the old seventh and eighth grades, and in the Freshman year of the four year high school, were open to many criticisms. The matter and the presentation were both defective. There was no logical connection between the eighth and the ninth grades. There was little or no attempt made to meet the individual needs of the pupils, or the peculiar need of the community. The writer lived for many years . . . all the years which in school would have been covered by a Junior High school course . . within 6 miles of Valley Forge, and never knew it.

To get to school, as the roads usually were in winter, required all the skill of an alligator hunter in the Okefenokee Swamp. But he and his fellow pupils committed the Constitution to memory and never realized that government had anything to do with roads. Farm boys studied fortification, factory boys studied

[q]U. S. Bureau of Education, Bulletin 1916, No. 28.

diplomacy. This may sound extreme but study carefully any social studies course more than eight years old and see how much better it was. As Dr. O'Shea says: "The students learned —the names of offices and their incumbents . . . and described their duties according to the formal method of the textbook. But just what part the Congressman from their district played in determining the welfare of people in their community, as a society and as individuals, they could not tell. . . . It is reasonable to say that very little has been done for them which will help them to be better citizens, when it comes to deciding any complex question of social action."[r]

Having discussed the general aims of the Educator, and the specific purposes of the Junior High School administrator, let us scrutinize the objectives of the History and Civics teacher. The subject of History has passed through several stages in its development. Originally History served merely as a stimulus to the warrior going into battle, as the evil deeds of the enemy and the great names and deeds of the tribe were boastfully screamed in the tomahawk dance on the eve of the fight.

Most of the race-epics are merely collections of such tales, thrown into beautiful form and sequence by some (often unknown) bard of early times. As the tribes found local habitations and became village communities, the struggles of class against class furnished added material to the military exploits of the community.

Tracing the development of history, then we find

1. The Race-epics—such as those of Homer.
2. Historical tales—as those of Herodotus.
3. Military annals, narrow and unscientific, for the purpose of press-agenting some leader as Cæsar, Sallust, Tacitus.
4. The theological didacticism of the monkish chronicles of the Middle Ages.
5. Critical analysis of source material begun by Petrarch in the Renaissance.

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[r]O'Shea, M. V. Everyday Problems in Teaching.

6. The effect of Physiographic influences as indicated in Bodin and Montesquieu.
7. History as the study of Life itself considered from a static point of view—as Voltaire.
8. And finally, History interpreted from the standpoint of evolution—considered in the dynamic aspect of growth, change and progress, as in the latter half of the nineteenth century.[s]

Having these changing, varying concepts of history before us, why study it? Why make a place in our course of study, devoting time and money to the subject?

Professor Robinson says,[t] "At every crossing on the road that leads to the future, each progressive spirit is opposed by a thousand men appointed to guard the past. Let us have no fear lest the fairest flowers of some former days be sufficiently defended. The least that the most trained of us can do is not to add to the immense weight which nature drags along." The social studies, as we interpret them to-day, in the light of the needs of the community perform their functions in the field of conduct and volition especially. "The social studies differ from the other studies by reason of their social content rather than in social aims; for the keynote of modern education is social efficiency, and instruction in all subjects should contribute to this end. . . . the social studies should . . . contribute to this end through the development of the appreciation of the nature and laws of social life, a sense of the responsibility of the individual as a member of the social groups and the intelligence and will to participate effectively in the promotion of social well-being."[u] Doctor De Garmo[v] sees in History a powerful agency for the development of judgment. He argues that since History is pre-eminently the realm of the contingent—that is, of a class of causes and effects unlike those revealed by natural law, but are influenced and determined by circumstances that might have

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[s]Taggart, H. F., Growth of History, Historical Outlook, Nov., 1921.
[t]Robinson, J. H., The New History.
[u]U. S. Bureau of Education, 1916, Bulletin 28.
[v]De Garmo, Principles of Secondary Education, p. 147.

been otherwise, therefore history has for its first great function the development of judgment respecting the civil affairs of men. This power of judgment enables its possessor . . . to estimate the probable effects of deviation from fundamental principles, and to forecast the transforming force of new conditions. Thereby is engendered a spirit of toleration.

Training in the history and traditions of the country is particularly important in the public schools, owing to the large number of children of foreign birth or parentage in our cities. In many instances, by the very nature of the case, this is the only opportunity offered to them to obtain this training. And there are many striking examples of the manner in which they respond to this influence. "Frequently they show a much greater enthusiasm and loyalty than some of the native born who have inherited all their advantages and who frequently fail to value them because everything has come to them without that sacrifice and labor that it has cost the immigrant and his children."[w]

The study of history in the schools has several important by-products. Doctor De Garmo cites three worthy of consideration here.[x] First, it exercises the reconstructive imagination. Second, it develops the memory. Third, it assists in developing a permanent attitude toward political liberty and self-government. These same three are noted by the report of a committee of schoolmen who restate the third in these words, "Politics forming a considerable part of the story of the past, historical study stimulates an interest in one's country, and lays the basis for intelligent patriotism."[y] A great French teacher expresses the thought in these words—in which we may substitute "America" for "France":—"To give the pupil an exact knowledge of the successive civilizations of the past and definite knowledge of the formation and growth of France; to show him the action of our country on the world and of the world on our country; to teach him to render to all peoples their just dues, to widen

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[w]Ames, H. V. Address to Association of History Teachers for the Middle States and Maryland. History Teachers' Magazine. June, 1917.

[x]De Garmo. Principles of Secondary Education.

[y]Report of the Committee of the Northwestern Association. History Teachers' Magazine. February, 1917.

the horizon of his mind, and finally to leave him in possession not only of an understanding of the present conditions of his country and of the world, but also of a clear notion of his own duties as a Frenchman and as a man—such is the function of history in education."[z]

The appreciation of the importance of history in the schools is not new. History as an aid to moral training was urged by Benjamin Franklin many years ago. He was outlining a plan for an "English School." After stating the necessity for several other subjects, he goes on: "For their further improvement, and a little to vary their studies, let them now begin to read history, after having got by heart a short table of Chronology. . . In remarking upon history the master will have fine opportunity for instilling instruction of various kinds, and improving the morals as well as the understanding of the youth."[a] In his preface to a textbook a writer of 1819 says concerning the moral value of the subject, "History, which adds to our own experience an immense treasure of the experience of others, furnishes innumerable proofs by which we may verify all the precepts of morality and prudence."[b] Another textbook writer develops the same thought in 1828:—"History presents us with pictures of the vicious ultimately overtaken by misery and shame, and thus solemnly warns us against vice."[c] The moral value of the study is further emphasized by these writers of 1809:—"History displays the felicities of goodness and the miseries of vice. . . Examples of individuals great and good, of communities distinguished for integrity and success, powerfully persuade to an imitation of their virtue."[d] Stated again in 1831, we have the idea in these words: "After possessing a knowledge of religion and the duties we owe to God and our neighbors, history is the next most important of all studies. . . . It apprizes us of the existence of evil and the end the way to shun it; it acquaints us

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[z]M. Lavisse. A propos de nos ecoles, p. 81.

[a]J. Sparks. Works of Benjamin Franklin, Vol. II, p. 128, Plan for an English School.

[b]Tytler, A. F. Elements of General History. (Preface.)

[c]Goodrich, C. A. History of the United States. P. 6.

[d]Morse and Parish. A Compendious History of New England. P. 13.

with existence of good and shows us how to attain it."[e] The early writers who had for their readers and pupils children trained in Calvinistic theology almost exclusively felt themselves at liberty to emphasize the religious training that might be accomplished by the study of History. Says one (1818): "History is calculated to lead the youthful mind to a correct knowledge of the basis upon which the Jewish and Christian churches rest, and by illustrations of general prophecy, also to lead the youthful mind to correct knowledge of the providence and government of God."[f] In a textbook of 1824 we learn that:—"History displays the dealing of God with mankind. It calls upon us to regard with awe His darker judgments, and again it awakens the liveliest emotions of gratitude for His kindness and benignant dispensations. It cultivates a sense of dependence upon Him, strengthens our confidence in His benevolence, and impresses us with a conviction of His justice."[g] A patriotic writer asks his readers to be "impressed with the distinguishing goodness of Divine Providence in giving them birth and dwelling in this country."[h]

Our early writers of history textbooks also thought that the study of this subject would develop the sentiment of patriotism. A lady writing for a New England group of readers in 1799 hoped that the minds of the young would be impressed "with veneration for those eminent men to whom their posterity are so highly indebted."[i] In 1809 another book appears in which the authors express the conviction that "Every person should possess some knowledge of the history of his country. It seems necessary to the existence of a true and enlightened patriotism."[j] An early western State superintendent stated that "A history, every instance of which has a tendency to inspire reverence for the institutions of our country, ought to be familiar as household

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[e]Goodrich, S. G. (Peter Parley) First Book of History (preface).

[f]Butler. "Catechetical Compend of General History, Sacred and Profane, from the Creation of the World to the Year 1817 of the Christian Era" (preface).

[g]Goodrich, C. A. History of the United States, 1824. P. 6.

[h]Hildreth, Hosea. A View of the United States.

[i]Adams, Hannah. Abridgment of the History of New England.

[j]Morse and Parish. Compendious History of New England (preface).

words to those on whose intelligence and patriotism the future hopes of the Republic are based."[k] The Report of the New York Regents expresses the idea more in detail: "In the character of the men who stood foremost in the contest for independence, the measures of provocation by which they were roused to resistance, the trials through which they passed, the reverses which they sustained, the triumphs which they achieved and the great political principles which were vindicated by them, there are lessons of instruction not inferior in value to any which can be made familiar with them, and his feelings imbued with the moral they contain, no better security can be provided against the degeneracy of that unconquerable spirit in which the foundations of our freedom were laid."[l]

The need of trained citizens, worthy to be members of a state drawing its powers directly from the voters, has been seen by many of these early writers of textbooks, and the value of history as a means of satisfying this need has been appreciated by them. An author already quoted[m] sets forth the idea in these words: "In this country it is the indispensable duty of every man of liberal birth to be acquainted in a certain degree with the science of politics. It opens to us the springs of human affairs, the causes of the rise, grandeur, revolutions and falls of empires; . . . . it dissipates prejudices, nourishes the love of country, and directs to the best means of improvement. . . . . It illustrates . . . . the danger on the one hand of uncontrolled liberty, and on the other, the debasing influence of despotic power."

Another author, writing in 1824, says that "well written history is the best political instructor." An author, writing about 1856, further emphasizes this point: "For the first time in recorded history there is a nation whose government directly depends upon the mass of the people, every individual of whom becomes a creator of its events in precise ratio with his personal

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[k]Pierce. Michigan Report of Superintendent of Public Instruction.
[l]Hawley. New York Report of the Regents of the University to the Senate, 1835, p. 95.
[m]Tytler, A. T. Elements of General History, 1819, p. 11.

energy. And even those who have no energy cannot avoid having an influence by hanging as a dead weight upon the wheels of progress. There is nothing, therefore, which can be studied of more immediate and practical value to Americans than history, showing, as it does, the origin and consequences of national action, and instructing every one what to do, and what to leave undone, in his own inevitable action as a citizen, legislator, executive officer or voter, one of which necessarily every American must be."[o] And Doctor Stubbs sums up the citizen-making function in these words: "If the study of history can really be made an educational implement in the schools, it will raise up a generation who not only will know how to vote, but will bring a judgment prepared, trained and, in its own sphere, exercised and developed, to help them in all the great affairs of life."[p] One contribution of History to the civic training of our youth which will be fully discussed later, was foreseen and emphasized by one of these early textbook writers. All peoples are, perhaps, too liable to be narrow and provincial in their outlook. The function of history in broadening our outlook and increasing international friendship was stated in these words in 1838:— "It is not our part to forget but to forgive. And while we remember the injuries inflicted and attempted by the government of Great Britain, let us bear in mind the many, many blessings that we owe to England and to Englishmen. The first sentiments of republicanism we now feel are from England. We owe to her literature, law, religion . . . and language."[q]

Going back to our educational aims we note the "wise use of leisure time." Indeed, the schools have a great task in building up interests which will occupy time not needed to satisfy economic and physical needs. Has history a contribution to make here? Unquestionably it should have such a contribution, and does have under the right kind of teaching. The necessity for making such provision for leisure time was seen by a writer

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[o]Peabody, Elizabeth. Chronological History of the United States, p. 130.

[p]Stubbs. Lecture on Mediæval and Modern History.

[q]Dunlap, Wm. A History of New York for Schools (preface).

of 1826 who considers that "history . . . . is desirable not so much for the sake of the knowledge thus to be acquired as for the benefit which it may afford for further improvement by enabling the pupil to pursue the study with satisfaction and advantage after the season of attending school is past; by cherishing a taste for a more profitable course of reading than is now generally pursued . . . . . fewer novels and more history."[r] An earlier writer already cited says that "It is the perfection of any science to write these advantages: to promote the advancement of public and private virtue and to supply such a degree of amusement as to supersede the necessity for recurring to frivolous pursuits for the sake of relaxation. Under this description falls the science of history."

Doctor Charters words the same idea as follows:—"History . . . . provides a pleasant occupation for . . . people who, for part of their time or for all of it, study it just because they like to know what happened in the past. They are well described by the poet Southey in these words:

My thoughts are with the Dead; with them
I live in long past years
Their virtuous love, their faults condemn,
Partake their hopes and fears.[t]

We may sum up the aims of history in the words of one of the Committees which has faithfully studied the field:—"The supreme aim in the teaching of history is to give positive direction to the growth of those mental and moral qualities of children which rightly developed, constitute the basis of the highest type of citizenship. Historical training

A. Frees the mind from the trammels of time and place, substituting the idea of orderly development and change for the instinctive notion of a static social world, performing in this respect a service in education analogous to that performed by biology for organic nature, or geology for inorganic nature.

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[r]Worcester, J. E. An Epitome of History, 1826.
[t]Charters, W. W. Teaching the Common Branches. P. 251.

B. It tends to produce openmindedness, which mitigates native prejudice and permits truth to gain recognition.

C. It induces patient inquiry for the purpose of disclosing facts of a given situation before passing judgment.

D. It gives some grasp on the methods of investigation and the tests of accuracy.

E. It develops that form of judgment which deals with the shifting and conditional relations of men in society, supplementing the scientific judgment which develops under the study of animate and inanimate nature and of mathematics.

F. It yields or should yield the high moral and ethical concepts of loyalty to principles and to institutions by revealing the cost at which the elements of civilization have been secured for us.

Let us examine the functions of another of the social studies as they apply to the work in the Junior High School.

Civics, or Civil Government, must be considered as distinct from, although closely related to history. Its functions are narrower than those of history. In teaching this subject we specifically aim at citizenship. When Machiavelli wrote "The Prince" he described a system of civic education proper for a state in which there was but one ruler—everybody else was a subject. The "prince" only needed civic education. Under the Venetian constitution of England from 1688 to 1832 (as described by Disraeli) the nobles only needed education and training for leadership.[v] The Greeks recognized the need for specific civic training since we are told that "The child ought to be instructed in what is just and unjust, honorable and disgraceful."[w]

The English philosopher Locke argues that "the right way for a Gentleman to study our Law, which he does not design for

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[v]Disraeli, Benjamin. Coningsby.
[w]Plato. Protagoras.

his Calling, is to take a View of our English Constitution and Government in the ancient Books of the Common Law, and some more modern Writers who out of them have given an Account of this Government.''[x] Locke was, of course, getting his ''Gentlemen'' ready to administer the oligarchical constitution described by Disraeli as ''Venetian.'' One of our own American leaders has expressed this need:—''Our government can be no purer than a majority of its citizens. When we find those to whom right of control has been given actuated by pure impulses in the administration of their trust, then we find government by the people in the highest state of perfection. But when we find, on the contrary, that it is disreputable to participate in government, and that to be known as a politician is to lower onesself in the estimation of one's friends, then the seed of careless disregard for our institutions is sown and the harvest will be disaster to the Republic.''[y] The importance of this training and the need for it can hardly be overemphasized. The citizen of Jackson's day, when the functions of government were few and simple, was doubtless competent, as Jackson said he was, to take any public office with but little previous training.

But the rapidly increasing complexity of the social order arising out of increased differentiation in the economic life, has destroyed the Arcadian simplicity of the earlier years. To-day we need trained experts in many fields of governmental activity, and a trained citizenship to recognize the needs for these activities and intelligently to judge them. This idea is well stated by Professor Jenks:—''It must not be overlooked, however, that the services of the individual and of the State are reciprocal. Not merely is the individual bound to use his powers for the good of his fellowmen, but Society has its organization as a state in order that its individual members may receive their highest development. It is only through the best equipped individuals that we can have the greatest advance in society, and the most perfect state; but it is likewise true, on the other hand, that

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[x]Locke. On Education. P. 187.

[y]Governor Odell. Quoted by Seeley. The Foundations of Education. P. 197.

only in the best equipped and best organized state are we likely to secure the influences which will produce individuals of the highest type."[z] It may be well for us to scrutinize the average type of citizenship and ascertain its defects before planning remedies. These defects have been noted: a, Ignorance. b, Indifference. c, Indolence. d, Lack of critical capacity. e, Lack of social or civic consciousness. Granting these faults, civic training should try to a, Remove these faults and supply these lacks. b, Develop civic capacity for creative work. c, Develop a civic intelligence and civic habits of mind.

The time has come when we must do for citizenship what we are already doing for the trade and professions—not necessarily set up legal standards for the practitioner,—but at least realize the need for training.[a] Doctor Winterburn sums up the object of the work in Civics rather well when he describes it as being "to purify and render intelligible the child's institutional sense, and to direct it toward its legitimate objects of loyalty."[b] The function, in part, then, of the social studies teacher, is to scrutinize the defects existing in the social organism, ascertain what defects in the individual give rise to these social defects, determine what are the qualities in the individual the existence of which would remove the social defects noticed, and bend his energies to the development of those qualities through the instrumentality of the social studies.

Having discussed the aim and function of social studies, and the purpose or purposes of educational planners in including these studies in the list of things the schools are to consider, let us approach the question of function from another point of view. We have scrutinized the social organism, discovered certain lacks and defects, and have offered the social studies to the pupil in the expectation that, properly handled, these studies will supply these lacks and remedy these defects. The question

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[z]Jenks, J. W. Social Basis of Education. Educational Review, Dec., 1905.

[a]Professors Hamilton and Knight, University of North Carolina, Defects of American Citizenship, Historical Outlook, June, 1921.

[b]Winterburn. Methods of Teaching, 1906. P. 316.

now is, Why this expectation on the part of teachers and citizens?

Exactly what, in other words, happens to the pupil with the result that he and his fellows, arriving at years of greater maturity and burdens of greater responsibility, shall so conduct themselves in the presence of the choices that must be made, and the problems that must be solved, in order that these choices shall be wiser and these solutions contribute more to the public welfare than has been the case in the past? Considering conduct as being the result of impulses, modified by inhibitions, how shall the social studies originate the suitable impulse or supply the governing inhibition in the presence of lines of conduct, choices, activities and problems which it is impossible for the teacher to foresee in detail, as these things will be arising for decades after the pupil has passed from under the teachers' immediate influence and control? To answer these questions we must examine certain educational and psychological laws. We must apply to the solution principles whose validity have been ascertained and determined in ways acceptable to the laws of scientific research. Applying this principle to the work in social studies as now carried on in our schools, a great deal of wasted time and energy on the part of the teacher will be discovered, and on the part of the pupil much that ought to have been achieved will be found to have been missed. Much of the work will be found cramped by the idiotic formalism of memory drill, which means nothing as far as concerns the achievement of the aim set, since we have good authority for believing that the Devil knows a good deal about the Bible . . . and much good it seems to do him!

Consider this phase alone for a while. Why have educational leaders from Moses to Horace Mann, including Socrates, Plato, Aristotle, Seneca, and so down the list, so strongly emphasized the cognitional phases of education? The answer perhaps lies in the fact that these great leaders were either consciously or unconsciously introspective in arriving at their conclusions. For Moses to learn the Law was to become an obedient worshipper of Jehovah. For Socrates to ascertain the exact meaning of

Justice and Virtue was to give sufficient impulse to the practice of those qualities. But the followers of Moses were sent wandering in the wilderness. Alcibiades listened to Socrates, but profaned the mysteries and betrayed his mother-city. Plato's pupil, Dionysis the younger, was an unprincipled tyrant. Aristotle was but little more successful with Alexander, dead of a debauch before arriving at the climax of his powers. Seneca the Stoic was scarcely more successful with Nero. But why enlarge the list? Reade, in his terrific indictment of the English prison system[c] refers to the prison chaplain who seeks the moral and social regeneration of his charges by requiring them to commit texts from the Scriptures—hundreds of texts.

If the social aims we have set for the teacher of social studies are to be realized—if the better community of better citizens is to develop from the groups of our pupils, it is apparent that the cognitional appeal, alone, is futile—perhaps dangerous. Former President Hadley of Yale endorses this idea in these words:—"It must constantly be borne in mind that the training of the free citizen is not so much the development of certain lines of knowledge as a development of certain essential qualities of character and habits of actions. Courage, discipline and loftiness of purpose are the things really necessary for the maintenance of a free government. If a citizen possesses these qualities of character he will acquire the knowledge which is essential to the conduct of the country's institutions, and to the reform of the abuses that may arise. If he does not possess these qualities, his political learning and that of his fellowmen will not keep the state from destruction. If he has not the courage to exercise his political rights in the face of possible intimidation, no amount of acquaintance with constitutional theory will save his vote from suppression or prevent popular government from becoming a mere shadow. If he has not the discipline to subject his will to the restraints of the law, no amount of the knowledge of the beneficial effects of these restraints will save the people from that revolution and anarchy which invite tyranny from

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[c]Reade, Charles. It is Never Too Late to Mend.

within or conquest from without. If he does not possess a measure of political idealism and disinterestedness of aim, no amount of knowledge of the needs of the country and the ways of meeting them will lead to the formation of an active public sentiment, or prevent the institutions of the nation from degenerating into a more and more rigid formalism."[d]

The point to be made clear is this: the teacher's task in the field of social studies is greater than the imparting of knowledge, greater than arousing interest, greater than increasing the child's vocabulary, greater than increasing his intelligence. The teacher must not only have high ideals, but must incorporate these into the warp and woof of the child's consciousness. And if the teacher is to be not a mere empiricist groping in the shadows, he must know the laws governing such development and the method of using these laws for the achievement of the end sought. That is asking a good deal of a school teacher!

We must, then, in some way reach, develop, direct and train the volition of the child. The "will to do" is the thing in his life that interests us. In the years to come, as in the present, the pupil will, in his relations with his fellowman and with the social unit, be called upon to make choices, decisions. Offices must be filled, loans and taxes voted, justice meted, the health, recreation and education of children attended to. In the elections twenty years hence, what will our pupils be doing? This is a far more important question than—What are they remembering?

There are some things a teacher must not do if these results are to be attained. One of these is preaching, another posting rules. Almost sixteen hundred years have elapsed since the Council of Nicæa—over 80,000 Sundays and thousands of sermons each Sunday. Yet it may well be doubted whether there are more real Christians in the world to-day than there were when that Council was held. Sermons make school children squirm. Posting rules and giving advice have a curiously contrary effect, in that they suggest the offenses in many cases—furnish the impulse rather than inhibit it.

[d]Hadley, Arthur T. Vassar Founder's Day Address, 1900.

Consider first the proper age for such teaching. We may roughly classify public school pupils into three types of schools —elementary, junior high, and senior high. The age norms for these grades are—elementary, six to eleven, junior high, twelve to fifteen, and senior high, sixteen to eighteen. Of course any study of an age grade distribution in any school system will show numerous cases of pupils younger or older than these norms in the various grades and schools. This is due to several reasons which need not be gone into until later. If we wish to describe the different grades of pupils by their physical development, we might (again only approximately) describe the elementary as the school of children or preadolescents; the junior high as the school of children of transition age and the senior high as the school of adolescents, and although the variations from this classification are even more numerous than in the preceding, we may, with precautions, take it as a guide in determining the purpose, content and method in the different subjects taught. As we have seen, however, special aptitude and variations from the norm must be taken care of in the junior high school work.

Our problem there, is this: Can we cause the social studies to make a permanent impression, which can be depended upon to operate in later life, upon the minds and actions of pupils changing from childhood to maturity? Should the attempt be made upon the preadolescents, or are the adolescents the proper recipients of our efforts?

Dr. G. Stanley Hall emphasizes the suitability of the changing age in these words: "Character and personality are taking form, but everything is plastic—no age is so responsive to the best and wisest of adult endeavor."[e] This age of adolescence has been studied by the questionnaire method by Earl Barnes.[f] Dr. Thurber,[g] H. M. Williams,[h] L. W. Kline,[i] Jegi,[j] and others. These studies are organized on the general plan of asking the

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[e]Hall, G. S. Adolescence, I, Preface.
[f]Barnes, Earl. Studies in Education, II, p. 243.
[g]Pedagogical Seminar, April, 1900.
[h]Transactions, Illinois Society for Child Study, II, p. 41.
[i]Transactions, Illinois Society for Child Study, III, p. 131.
[j]Barnes, Earl. Studies in Education, II, p. 243.

children to write on some such topic as: "Whom would you like to resemble?" "What do you want to do when you grow up?" "What would you like to be in an imaginary city?" "What do you wish to be and do?" Such questions as these were asked of large groups both in England and America. The answers were tabulated by ages, races and social groups. The results were of interest to us in our questions because they showed the changes in ideals, feelings and outlooks that occurred as the ages passed from preadolescence of childhood to the adolescence of youth. In a study made in Dr. Yocum's Seminar of Educational Research (not published) an attempt was made to introduce a single variable factor in the presentation of Community civics to two 9th year classes in high school. The presence of the variable was to increase the emotional reaction of the pupil. The results showed that this could be done.

This point will be considered later—at present, we may consider it settled that the adolescent boy or girl, assuming (a) that the mind is developing at the same rate as the body and (b) that both mind and body are developing at normal rate, is found in the Junior High School, and that this school is the proper place to make permanent certain habits, points of view and ideals that shall function as part of the students' equipment for citizenship in later life. Both of these assumptions, as we have seen, are subject to wide and numerous departures from the norm in both directions—this qualification of the assumption being one of the main reasons for organizing junior high schools in the first place. In the later phases of this discussion, the deviations from the norm will be duly considered.

In considering further the question of the realization of the social aims it is necessary to discuss the educational process as it operates on the child. Adopting Doctor Yocum's analysis, we trace the stream of impressions impinging upon the sensory end-organs of the pupil's nervous system. This stream of impressions is constant during every waking hour. Not only the five great end-organs that receive visual, auditory, tactual, gustatory and olfactory impressions, but the sensations arising from fatigue, and muscle strain as well as those arising from

the proper or abnormal functioning of the organs of the body, must be taken into account. We further trace this stream into the brain, where they mingle with certain inherited tendencies, besides modifying and inhibiting or intensifying each other, and giving rise, as a consequence, to the motor activities of the individual.

Interpreting the teacher's task in the above mentioned terminology, he must partly control the impression stream so as to produce such brain impressions, inhibitions, intensifications, and motor-reactions as have been ascertained to be socially and individually desirable, and to turn aside such impression streams, or at least build up strong inhibitory centers against them, as would lead to undesirable results, socially and individually.

In doing this the teacher should utilize to the full the fact that this stream of stimuli is impressed upon the consciousness with varying degrees of intensity, considering the individual stimuli separately. Here we follow Doctor Yocum's analysis. He points out five varying degrees of intensity which these stimuli impress themselves.

1. The impressions which are so faint that they cannot be consciously recalled or remembered.
2. The impressions which are recalled as names, or words with meanings attached, but do not in themselves serve as centers for the accumulation of related ideas.
3. The impressions which have been so strongly made that later impressions serve to recall them to remembrance, the original impressions serving as centers around which later related impressions group themselves.
4. The impressions which are of so high a degree of intensity that they permanently modify motor reactions.
5. And the impressions which are so strong that they function in other and not closely related fields.

Going back to Number 1, described as "The impressions which are so faint that they cannot be consciously recalled," we will follow Doctor Yocum's analysis further. That form of mental growth resulting from the non-recallable impressions he describes as "Impression Control." For many years the process of education concerned itself with making WORDS real through THINGS. The student listened to lectures, read what books he could, and tried to translate the acquisitions obtained in this manner into the realities of living. But the teacher of to-day is confronted by a different problem. Railway travel, the rise of the automobile, the multiplication of pictures through mechanical means, the rise of the phonograph to general popularity and the widespread development of the cinema show, to say nothing of the recent wonderful developments in the field of radio, have shown us that THINGS have become a great and important educational factor in the lives of the children of to-day, and that the problem of the educational leader is the reverse of the older problem of the Renaissance. It is now rather imperative that concrete experience should be made selective and given useful suggestiveness by supplying each individual with enough useful words, associations and impressions, than that words should, as formerly, be made real through things.

To analyze this impression control further, there are at least five types, as noted by Doctor Yocum, Doctor Bagley, Doctor Judd and others, which must be kept in mind in any consideration of this field.

1. SENSINGS. Here the chief point to be noted is the discrimination adequate to a sense of harmony, becomingness, appropriateness in dress and the fine arts, and social behavior.

2. REALIZATIONS. These are often conditioned by sensings and are usually accompanied by attitudes, are developed by presenting things or experiences themselves, or representing and illustrating them by models, pictures, examples, etc. The problem of the method is to use the strongest and least material or experience which will result in realizations that are controlling.

3. ATTITUDES. Here we have added to the two before mentioned, that is, to the sensings and realizations, likes and dislikes, respects, admirations, prides, contempts and hatreds. The purpose of the method here is to make the right attitudes strong and to counteract the wrong attitudes that may already exist.

4. STANDARDS. When the right attitudes have been established, then standards of quality and degree should be aimed at. The chief purpose of method here is to set up the standards which are attainable for each group or period of development and environment.

5. MOTIVES. While sensing, realization, attitude or standard may in itself be a motive, yet we cannot so describe it until it is strong enough to result surely in individual action. The object of the method here is to use a cumulative sum-total of the strongest right motives until they are controlling, and to pass from specific and temporary motives to those which are general and enduring as rapidly as possible.

In Number Two we referred to the impressions of words. The form of mental development arising from the retention of words may be described as the Control of Conduct through Vocabulary. To quote Doctor Yocum again:—The number of words in the vocabulary of the individual determines the amount of experience which is retained and recallable while the kind of words determines the kind of experience which is retained and recalled. Nor is it necessary always to attempt putting the new experiences into words simple enough for the child to understand. New words, even though only partially understood, become the "catch-alls" for changing experience.

From the standpoint of the different methods necessary to their rentention, there are five types or classes of words.

1. Words which conspicuously label certain experiences. If a museum specimen, a piece of music, a significant bit of behavior, attracts attention, the word which will recall it should be equally brought to the attention of the pupil. A new word for a familiar or conspicuous thing, used by the teacher three or four times, becomes part of the mental equipment of the pupils.

2. Words which are readily retainable through their form. The variety of these is large. Some are imitative of the sounds they represent, some are alliterative and sonorous, and in either case the form contributes to the retention. Perhaps the words most readily retained through their form are those new words which are partly identical in sound and meaning with familiar words. When we see "portage" in a history lesson the meaning can be appreciated and retained through association with "port" in geography. This method can be used with a great variety of words. The derivations should not be neglected, not only because the pupil will remember the word better, but because of the sense of power over the words which will develop in the mind of the pupil.

3. The general terms under which the greatest number of useful words can be assembled. By associating new words with some general term, it is surprising how many of them will be retained in mind until they become part of the intellectual life of the pupil. The method required the mastery of the general term, and the continual assembling of particular terms around the general term.

4. Locations rich in useful words. These locations may be part or detail of things as a whole, or a location in place, as a geographical location, or a location in time, as a historical period or event, or a location in experience, as religion, or a location in a branch of knowledge, as Botany, Physics, etc. The names of the locations are memorized, and the new words are continually associated with them.

5. Word-suggesters. These are words or phrases which, if memorized, in connection with a general term or word-location, make it much more suggestive of words than would otherwise be the case.

Continuing the analysis, Number Three brings us to what has been designated as Variation Control. As experience is multiplied and receives many associations, different individuals will have different ideas; and the same experience will suggest different associations for different individuals, or at different times for the same individual. There are two ways in which

variation exercises control. In the first it results in the building up in the mind of a multitude of separate associations wherever experience happens to bring ideas together. Variation is thus built up in one mind in ways which are impossible in any other mind. Ideas in this way reassemble in new combinations which are unexpected to others. The second form of variation control results from the building up of a mental switchboard in which each useful idea is associated with as many other ideas stimulated, but less from mere happening than through deliberate seeking. But in either of these forms of the variation control there are five types of suggestion.

1. Experiences suggestive of many ideas. In our school work we try to develop this form of control through projects, problems, laboratory experiments, the analysis of jobs in the study of vocations, and in various other ways.

2. Specific ideas suggestive of many experiences. The idea is suggested to the pupil and the pupil encouraged to recall experiences of various kinds connected with this idea. Suppose the idea is "water-supply." With this the pupil can be led to connect personal experiences in the city, in the country, in camp. The pupil may also, through a visit to the works, multiply his experiences. The idea of a "Liberty-bond" may also have associated with it many useful experiences on the part of the pupil.

3. General ideas. These can be made suggestive and controlling by selecting some conspicuous concrete particular which will emphasize the common features which strengthen the general idea. As with some of the other phases of the analysis, there will be further discussion under the head of Method.

4. Locations rich in ideas. It is in this field of variation control that history has an important contribution to make. Around certain dates and places may be gathered groups of ideas.

5. Idea suggesters. These are words or phrases which when memorized in association with a general idea or with a location rich in ideas suggest many associations that would perhaps not otherwise come to mind.

Number four of the five forms of knowledge leads to what has been described as Habit-system control. Anything learned so surely that it affects or changes individual experience or conduct belongs to this form of control. There are at least three groups or types of habits which are educationally useful.

1. Habits essential to impression, vocabulary or variation control. Every strong feeling should as a matter of habit be associated with a useful idea, and the highly useful idea should in turn be associated with the feeling which should emotionalize it. Word suggesters and idea suggesters should be memorized.

2. Habits specifically useful in themselves. Memorizing those masterpieces which are useful because of their literary form, the cultivation of the skills and procedures which the learner will continually use, are activities belonging to this group of habit control development.

3. Generally useful habits. This includes general terms with their suggesters, general theories, laws and hypotheses, and all other habits that can usefully be employed in fields other than those in which they are first mastered.

Number five of the types of learning enumerated above leads to that form of conduct control which can best be described as Transfer Control. This has been described as general application in the face of obstacles to identification or application. There are five of these forms of transfer control.

1. As general as is useful—that is, before I apply any habit I must be trained to determine in just how useful a form it must be put. Am I to tell the exact truth to everybody? Must I look up in the atlas every new place of which I hear? Should I always buy as cheaply as possible?

2. The association of each thing to be generally applied with the most useful fields and types of application. Honesty must be associated with business, politics, taking examinations, finding things, etc.

3. A strong enough motive to wish to transfer. Obedience to the law must include all laws, including game laws, traffic rules, health, etc.

4. The habit of looking for new applications. Suppose the idea of democracy had been developed. Can there not be developed the habit of looking for the application of the idea to social life, to the right of the immigrant, to business and industry, to religion, etc.?

5. Familiarity with the most suggestive words and associations in each field and type of application. One cannot apply democracy to the problems of business or industry without knowing the vocabulary of the business world or of the individual group under consideration, as the miners, the girl workers, etc. One cannot apply general knowledge in such fields as botany without knowing the vocabulary of the science. The same is true of chemistry.

Consideration of these educational aims of the teacher of course involves a consideration of the methods which a teacher must use in order to make these aims effective in the minds and lives of the pupils. In the discussion of the aim as outlined above, the question of method has several times been referred to. As far as the social studies are concerned, these methods will be more fully discussed in the section of METHOD. The above discussion and analysis is based upon the treatment of the subject as analyzed by Doctor Yocum in "Culture, Discipline and Democracy," also in his lecture on the "Virtues and Limitations of the Progressive Movement" in the issue of "School and Society" for Janaury 21, 1922. Doctor W. C. Bagley's chapter on "Impressions" in the "Educational Processes." Doctor E. L. Thorndyke's "Educational Psychology," Chapter xviii, contains references to the idea of the Transfer Control and to the condition favorable to it. In the Lectures given by Doctor Yocum at the Summer Session, 1921, of the School of Education of the Western Reserve University the brief outline of the entire field was presented in brief form.

To recapitulate the Aims of the Social Studies:—They may be grouped under two heads; first, the function of the social studies in the training of young people for the social and civic duties and responsibilities of life in a self-governing State, with an incidental development of love of learning, must be kept in

mind by educational administrators, boards of education, superintendents and principals responsible for the arrangement and content of the course of study and for the time allotment to be given to the social studies in this course. The social aim is to be kept in mind also by the teacher in planning for the daily work, the research tasks, and other school activities.

The second aim is the one that concerns the psychologist, the educational leader who is entrusted with the training of teachers, and the expert in methods of teaching. It has to do with the handling of the material in such a way, with such a comprehension of the laws of mental activity and mental growth, with such an understanding of the principles involved, as will lead to the full realization of the first aim in the student body. The two aims may be illustrated by comparing the education of our youth to the construction of a public building.

In this case the legislature, as representing the public, will prescribe the number and size of the rooms, the corridors and halls, and will provide for pictures, statues and other ornaments for the adornment of the building. The architect, artists, and builders will embody these requirements in granite, marble, bronze and steel—the structure being arranged so as not only to fulfill the requirements of the public, but so as to stand as an enduring monument to the skill, taste and judgment of the builders. These are the things we will do with the social studies in the schools.

It must not be forgotten, however, in connection with the question of aim, that one of our purposes is to adapt the social studies group with which we are working to the peculiar needs and functions of the Junior High School. Among these purposes of the junior high school as listed in the treatises of Professor Briggs, Koons and others may be selected certain ones to the realization of which the social studies will contribute.

Better provision for the varying needs arising out of individual differences. If the teacher, as suggested later, uses the device or method of the project even partially, there will be a splendid chance for the pupils of varying needs to express themselves in the line of the interests which differ. If the

pupils are of different nationalities, for illustration, they can work on projects which will bring out the various contributions which their respective nationalities have made to the development of the American state. If the variation in the members of the class is due to different vocational interests, they can work upon projects which will express their vocational interest. If diffrent racial groups are present in the class, their projects may follow the line of their respective racial interests, just as has been indicated for the varying national groups. Should the differences be along the line of mental development, the projects for the more mature may well be of a different kind and organization than those of the less mature. To illustrate, an immature Polish pupil might write a biographical project exercise on the life of Pulaski or Kosciusko. A more mature Russian pupil might write on the general topic of Russian-American relations. An immature negro pupil might work on a project such as Lincoln the Man who Freed the Negro, while mature students of the same race might undertake some topic as the Negro Since the Civil War. But this is not the only way in which the social studies provide for the variations to be found in the students of junior high schools. Sometimes, in fact, frequently, these differences should be reduced and minimized rather than emphasized. They may be of such nature that they injure or retard the student as a member of the social group. The social studies are designed to, and should, develop a certain uniformity of ideals along certain lines in which uniformity is desirable. Even some of the things listed above as helping to take care of the differences among the pupils are really planned to help reduce some of the differences in other respects. The Polish boy who writes of Kosciusko and the Italian boy who writes of Cabot and Columbus are both receiving a training in an appreciation for the meaning of America and her institutions.

Another of the aims of the junior high school which is served by the social studies is the provision for the guidance of the pupil. This aim is realized through several phases of the work in the social studies. In the content of the group as listed above the subject of vocational guidance has been listed with the

social studies. This subject, if properly developed and emotionalized, will be a strong factor in guiding the pupils in the economic world. In the social and civic world, the subject of civics must be so handled as to result in such attitudes, standards, etc., as will be valuable guides for the pupil in his civic relations. And his economic thinking can be and should be influenced and directed by many of the conclusions he draws from the things he learns in History and Current Events.

Another of the aims of the junior high school served by the social studies is the attempt to secure better co-operation with the elementary school below and the secondary or senior high school above. If the social studies have been carefully worked out in cycles for the entire twelve years of the regular public school course, a part of the difficulty of the articulation of the system among the three types of school will have been eliminated. This means that in arranging and planning the course the administrators should bear in mind what is being done above and below while planning the work for the junior high school. But the securing of this co-ordination means really more than this, for the teacher. The senior high school teacher in times past knew his subject pretty thoroughly, but knew little of the art of teaching. In the case of the elementary teacher, she knew little about the subject, but was skilled in the art of imparting what she knew. When a pupil came from the one to the other there was an intellectual wrench in his mind. Now it is the duty of the junior high school teacher to employ such methods in her classes as will cause this transfer from the elementary school to the high school to be made gradually. The teacher in a 7B class will use methods more nearly resembling those of the elementary school, while the teacher in a 9A will have his pupils nearly accustomed to what they must expect in the school above.

Another of the aims of the junior high school that can be aided by the social studies is the improvement of opportunities for socialization. In the discussion of classroom method the question of socialized recitation is taken up. Not only by the socialized recitation will the opportunities for socialization be extended, but also through the agency of many of the activities

which should be a part of the civics work. The Civic League of the school, the Student Council, the Committee to Help Cleanup, all these contribute to the process indicated in the aim—that is, increased opportunities for socialization.

The social studies will, therefore, contribute to the special function and purpose of the junior high school in the ways indicated. But in the organization as formed for the administration of the junior high school idea there are several advantages claimed. Certain reforms which would have been impracticable if not impossible under the older type of organization are aimed at in the newer type. The organization of the work in the social studies should be so managed that these branches will not only fail to hinder the reforms planned, but will contribute directly to their accomplishment. With some of the reforms planned the social studies may be described as neutral—they neither help nor hinder. If they are to be realized it should be through other features of the organization.

Can we make the social studies contribute to the reform described as "Differentiated Curricula"? There seems to be a somewhat general agreement that the differentiation should exist, becoming more marked as the pupil enters the ninth year. But most of the students in this field appear to think that the social studies should be constants rather than variables in the course of study. The argument for this of course rests upon the need for training citizens by giving them a common rather than a varied background of civic experience.

This advocacy of the social studies as constants is undertaken by Newlon (Need for a Scientific Curriculum Policy for Junior High Schools, Vol. III, Educational Administration and Supervision), also by Inglis (Principles of Secondary Education). Bonser, in his list of Suggested Variables, does not mention the social studies (Democratizing Secondary Education by the 6-3-3 Plan, Educational Administration and Supervision, Vol. I). In practice, however, many schools are found to have reduced the social studies to the status of variables in the ninth year, and a few have done so in the eighth. A table reproduced from

Doctor Briggs, The Junior High School, will show this tendency. The figures are percentages.

	7th year			*8th year*			*9th year*		
	R	E	X	R	E	X	R	E	X
Douglas data ____	100	--	--	95	4	1	29	61	10
Briggs data ____	62	12	26	83	6	11	20	47	33

Another of the administrative reforms aimed at by the introduction of the junior high school is promotion by subjects. The social studies can easily be organized to permit of this method of promotion. By delimiting the work for each semester rather carefully, a student will have a definite task to perform before being promoted. And if the social studies be grouped in with the constants, that means that there will always be classes in every grade of the social studies, which will make it comparatively easy, as an administrative detail, to make up a study-program for one who has failed in the work of the semester.

The junior high school plans to make it easier for the students to organize and undertake student activities. Here the social studies can make an important contribution. The student council and the athletic association should feature largely in the work of the civics classes. The relations between the classes and the organizations should be reciprocal. Each should look to the other for aid and support. The full value of both will not be realized unless such a reciprocal relationship exists.

PART II. CONTENT OF THE COURSE.

Assuming the validity of the various aims and purposes of the Social studies course to be established, an inquiry into the content of such a course is now in order. There is a vast amount of material in the form of suggestions for such a course available. But here is the proper place to inquire what are the various subjects which we should consider under the head of social studies. There are many social studies, as, history, politi-

R—Required; E—Elective; X—Not offered.

cal science, sociology, economics, and ethics, but we are primarily interested in that group which is to be studied by the pupils of twelve to fourteen years of age, in the school years from seven to nine, and, presumably, in the transition stage from childhood to early maturity. With children of this age it would obviously be futile to delve deeply into the abstract principles of sociology, economics or ethics. Yet some phases of these subjects, in the form of concrete problems, may well be included under more general names. For the purpose, then, of arranging our work, let us name the Junior High School Social Studies.

I. History, in some form must be included in the course in these years. As Doctor O'Shea says, "A word should be said regarding history instruction during the period of adolescence. Now is the time to make most prominent the reasonableness of honor in all relations of life, and the necessity for altruism, heroism, patriotism and industry."[a] Further on we will consider the field of history to be covered.

II. Civics of some kind. Here a careful consideration of content is necessary. But this period of the child's life is the time for a consideration of this subject. "To be thoroughly a part of a person's life, the concept of honest, unselfish citizenship must be commenced with the child. His understanding and appreciation of the institutional side of his own character, and of its necessity in a well-balanced life, must be educated in his childhood."[b]

III. The study of Current Events. In a land such as ours where matters of public concern are so vitally dependent upon a well-organized, well-expressed and intelligent public opinion, there can be no question as to the need for special time devoted to this study. "The child must learn to live in the present. He must be taught the problems of the day that he may know how to vote; he must be made a good citizen; human efficiency must be increased."[c]

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[a]O'Shea, M. V. Social Development and Education. P. 271.
[b]Winterburn, Methods of Teaching, page 316.
[c]Marshall, T. P. Present Tendencies in History Teaching. History Teachers' Magazine, June, 1914, p. 179.

IV. Vocations. An interesting discussion might be undertaken to demonstrate that Vocations should not come under the head of Social Studies. A person learns a vocation primarily for the economic purpose of satisfying his needs. The purpose in view and the knowledge gained are egocentric. But the general opinion seems to be that it should be included.

V. Geography in this paper will not be considered as one of the social studies, although it overlaps the field of economics largely. Yet perhaps it would be better to group it with the sciences rather than the social group of studies. Some of the courses of study which are to be examined place geography upon the time of the social studies, but if it can be managed it is better to do so.

VI. World Problems. "The social studies should also cultivate a sense of Membership in the world community."[d] The aims and specific purposes of this course will be considered at the proper time. Enough to say that it is possible to arouse a keen interest in these problems in students of Junior High School age.

Having this group of studies before us, how shall they be fitted into a course in which every hour must be counted and the claims of language, English, mathematics, science, vocational exploration, etc., must be also provided for?

In attempting to formulate a course of study for the social studies, we must bear in mind that although certain principles may be established, we must not give the details as something final and absolute. "There is . . no permanent solution of the social problem possible. In a world of change, each age is necessarily confronted by new problems which it alone can solve. Our quest must not be for a static solution, but for rational principles which may guide us in seeking some rational control over the relations of men to one another."[e] Doctor Meriam has formulated five general principles by which we should be governed in arranging school work for young people.[f]

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[d]United States Bureau of Education, 1916, Bulletin 28, p. 9.

[e]Ellwood, C. A. The Social Problem, page 220.

[f]Meriam, J. L. Child Life and the Curriculum, pages 137, 171, 207, 237, 255.

It is worth while, for our purpose, to repeat them at this point, and to keep them constantly in mind as we develop the course in the social studies.

I. The curriculum should contribute primarily to enabling boys and girls to be efficient in what they are now doing—only secondarily preparing them to be efficient later. The importance of this point can hardly be overestimated, more especially since it is so constantly lost sight of by teachers, even by leaders of educational thought. School life is real life, not only preparation for a life to be lived later. It should be life so organized as to develop efficiencies of lasting value, but so should all life—the home life, the playground life, the church life—of everybody. "We are continually uneasy," says Professor Dewey, "about the things we adults know, and are afraid the child will never learn them unless they are drilled into him by instruction before he has any intellectual use for them. If we could really believe that attending to the needs of present growth would keep the child and teacher alike busy, and would also provide the best possible guarantee of the learning needed in the future, transformation in educational ideals might soon be accomplished, and other desirable changes would largely take care of themselves."

II. The curriculum should be selected directly from real life, and should be expressed in terms of the activities and the environments of the people. In keeping this principle in mind we are going directly back to one of the primary aims of the Junior High School, in striving for such differentiation as may meet the needs of the different pupils adequately. We are also allowing for such inevitable variations from place to place and from time to time as necessarily form part of the problem of the social studies teacher's work. "No sensible teacher . . . asks how many facts he has to teach. No two teachers, if good ones, would teach the same number of facts, or just the same facts . . . to different classes. No sensible teacher asks what kind of facts he shall teach, expecting to receive in answer a tabulation of his material. He knows that general rules

accompanied by suitable illustrations are the only useful answer to these questions."[g]

III. The curriculum should provide for great scope and flexibility to meet individual differences in interests and abilities. This principle is important when we remember the age-grade distribution of our pupils, when we recall the retardation and acceleration in our schools due to the development of different minds not running exactly parallel to the physical development of the bodies of the students. It is another attempt on our part to consider the curriculum from the point of view of the requirement to allow for differentiation.

To illustrate from one of the social studies: "The subject matter of Community Civics will vary with the community in which the school is located. Communities vary almost as much as individuals. There are large cities, the villages, and the open country. They differ also as to the character and occupations of the people."[h]

IV. The curriculum should be so organized that it will admit of easy rearrangement of the schedule for any day, of the work for any grade, and even the transfer of work from grade to grade. The principle is illustrated in our social studies course by the necessity of considering certain events or of developing certain ideas at times when there is some strong popular interest in the subject. The teacher should at all times be ready to avail himself of this interest in the handling of his subject. Perhaps there is a newspaper outcry about the post office, a Supreme Court decision on some important constitutional point, or an agitation for a new water works. With a flexible curriculum the class can consider these things at the moment of their maximum interest, in this way securing decided advantages.

V. The curriculum should lead the pupil to appreciate both work and leisure, and to develop a habit of engaging in both. If we can arrange our work in the social studies so as to secure a

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[g]Indianapolis Elementary Course of Study in Geography, History, and Civics.

[h]United States Bureau of Education, 1913, Bulletin 41, p. 21.

portion of the leisure time of the student in later life, much will be accomplished for the social welfare.

The means to be employed will come up for discussion later. At this point we merely note the principle. It might be well, before taking up the details of the course which will be proposed, that is, before attempting to apply the above principles to the social studies course, to consider briefly the development of such courses in the past, both in Europe and in America. There has already been indicated the development of the historical idea. Here an attempt will be made to survey the growth and development of history teaching.

Joshua, leader of Israel, had a sound scheme in his attempt to arouse inquiry and curiosity on the part of the young Israelites of the coming generation: "When Joshua called the twelve men, whom he had prepared of the children of Israel, out of every tribe a man; and Joshua said unto them, 'Pass over before the ark of the Lord your God into the midst of Jordan, and take you up every man of you a stone upon his shoulder, according unto the number of the tribes of Israel: that this may be a sign among you, that when your children ask their fathers in time to come, saying, What mean ye by these stones? Then ye shall answer them,' " etc.[i]

As Doctor Johnson says, "When history emerged as a distinct branch of learning—it early assumed a form that seemed to limit its utility—Princes studied it as a part of their preparation for the art of war, men of letters studied it as part of their preparation for the art of writing. There were reasons for keeping history from the common people because it might breed discontent and insubordination."[j]

History was urged as a subject for instruction by Luther in 1524, and in 1582 the Privy Council of England ordered a text to be prepared. Comenius, in his plans, foreshadowed history for every year of school, and urged the inclusions of morals, customs, arts and inventions.[k] In the eighteenth century when

[i]Joshua IV, 4-7 inclusive.
[j]Johnson. Teaching of History, p. 85.
[k]Comenii Magna Didactica. Pages 213-222.

men were exercising "pure reason" in developing political theories, history was at a discount although Rousseau had included history in the instruction planned for Emile, yet that youth was not to study it until his eighteenth year. Although history was coming into gradual prominence as a branch of learning, it was as yet mostly ancient history. National history was slow in gaining ground, and where it did begin to advance into prominence, it had the unfortunate effect of centering and narrowing men's views. After the French Revolution even kings felt the need of creating popular support for their thrones and dynasties, and history became almost propaganda. With the fall of Napoleon serious attention was devoted to the development of the history courses. At first the arrangement of the material through the grades was chronological. But, however logical this might have been, it was not grading. Only the older pupils studied the recent history of their own land. D'Alembert and Basedow recommended that chronological sequence be reversed—that the study begin with the present and work back. The former German Emperor as late as 1890 told the teachers that "Hitherto the road has led from Thermopylæ by way of Cannæ to Rossbach and Bienville. I would lead our youth from Sedan and Gravelotte by way of Leuthen and Rossbach back to Mantinea and Thermopylæ."[l] Others called for the high point plan and the culture-epoch plan. The cycle plan, to be discussed later, now prevails to a certain extent in the 1902 organization of the work in the French schools. This cycle plan is prevalent also in the German secondary school, the work being given in two main cycles, with variations to be noted in the different cities.

In the United States the study of history was also slow in getting started. In 1785 Noah Webster included "short stories of the history and geography of the United States" in his Grammatical Institutes of the English Language, and in 1788 he contributed about twenty pages of history to Morse's Geography.[m] When Lewis Cass left Exeter Academy in 1799 his certi-

[l]Rein, Methodik des Geschichtsunterrichts, p. 77.
[m]Russell, History Teachers' Magazine, V, 311.

ficate stated that history was one of the subjects in which he had made "valuable progress."[n] Massachusetts enacted in 1827 a mandatory statute concerning the teaching of history in the various classes of towns, and ten years later more than two-thirds of the towns reported history among the branches taught.[o] In 1852, out of 170 academies, 126 offered general history and 91 offered United States history. Ten years later, United States history had overtaken and passed general history in the academies. Of 204 institutions in that year, 123 offered general history and 169, United States history.[p]

But as late as 1870 the University of Michigan alone allowed American History as an entrance requirement. The first of numerous "committee reports" in 1876, recommended American history for the elementary schools and general history, as well as the American Constitution, for the secondary schools. But the American history began only in the seventh grade. The effect of this upon the great majority of children, who left school before the seventh grade, can easily be imagined.

The next important work was done by the Committee of Ten appointed in 1892 by the National Educational Association. This committee was to inquire "into the programs of secondary schools in the United States and into the requirements for admission to college" and to make recommendations. The conference of this committee on history, civil government and political economy met at Madison in December of the same year and recommended as follows: The subject of history was to start in the fifth year, and to be pursued through High School.

Fifth.	Biography and Mythology.
Sixth.	Biography and Mythology.
Seventh.	American History and Civil Government.
Eighth.	Greek and Roman History, Oriental connections.
Ninth.	French History, to show general development of Mediæval and Modern history.
Eleventh.	American History.
Twelfth.	Special period studied intensively and civil government.[q]

[n]McLaughlin, Lewis Cass, 39.
[o]Russell, History Teachers' Magazine, pages 312-15.
[p]Reports, Regents of University of New York for years indicated.
[q]Report, Committee of Ten, p. 163.

An alternative course of six years was also suggested, formed by dropping out the eighth and ninth years of the above program. The suggested time allowed was not less than three forty-minute periods a week.

The recommendations of this committee were open to numerous objections. When all nine conferences had finished their respective tasks, it was found that, far from establishing a norm of twenty periods per week per pupil, the recommendations totalled First year (high school) twenty-two, Second year, thirty-seven and a half, Third year, thirty-five and for the Fourth year, thirty-seven and a half. An attempt was made to get around this difficulty by formulating four courses, with such selections and omissions from the list of recommendations as would reduce the required work to the maximum time recommended. But history suffered severely in this process. Many pupils, before they got to American history, had spent all possible time in history, and were forced to leave school without having studied their own country. To place it elsewhere in the course disarranged the logical sequence. The college entrance varied widely. In 1895, 475 colleges and universities reported. Out of this group, 306 required American for entrance, 127 general history, 112 Greek history, 116 Roman history, 57 English history, 9 state and local history, and 1 French and German history.[r] This undesirable state of confusion led to action on the part of the New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools which appointed a Committee to study the subject. This committee recommended seven historical fields for study, any two of which, when pursued three periods a week for a year, were to constitute a unit or subject for entrance. These seven fields were as follows:

1. History of Greece,
2. History of Rome to 800 A. D.,
3. German History,
4. French History,
5. English History,
6. American History and Civics,
7. Intensive study of a limited period.[s]

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[r]Report, Commissioner of Education, 1896, p. 468.
[s]Publication No. 5. New England History Teachers' Association, 13.

The report of the committee was adopted by the association except that the study of Roman History was to end at the accession of Commodus. At a conference of six leading universities held at Columbia the following year the general idea was endorsed. But the details were modified as follows: Two groups of four topics each were suggested. Any two of the first group, studied 3 periods a week for one year, were to constitute an entrance subject.

1. History of Greece to the death of Alexander.
2. History of Rome to the accession of Commodus.
3. English History.
4. American History and Civics.

In the second group one topic, studied for 3 periods a week for two years, was to constitute an entrance unit, or as unit for advanced credit.

1. Greek and Roman History for those who had offered English history and American history as an elementary subject.
2. English history and American history with civics for those who had offered Greek history and Roman history as an elementary subject.
3. The history of Europe from the Germanic Invasions to the beginning of the seventeenth century.
4. A year's study of any of the elementary fields combined with a year's detailed study of a limited period within the field—if this elementary field had not already been offered as an elementary subject.[t]

These recommendations became very popular with the colleges. Cornell, Pennsylvania and Tufts accepted within a year. Dartmouth, Mount Holyoke and Harvard soon followed, and by 1900 a number of others had accepted. The immediate effect was an increased interest in the teaching of history in the high schools. The Committee of Ten of the National Educational Association had asked other organizations to co-operate in their task. The American Historical Association responded by appointing, in December of 1896, the Committee of Seven. This Committee confined its recommendations, after careful study, to the high school problem. Their recommendation, in condensed form, is as follows:

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[t]Publication No. 5. New England History Teachers' Association, 16-17.

Ninth year, Ancient History to 800 A. D.
Tenth year, Mediæval and Modern History.
Eleventh year, English History.
Twelfth year, American History and Civics.

A number of alternative suggestions for three year courses need not be discussed, as the report was designed to meet the needs of an old-fashioned four year high school rather than those of a Junior High school. They defined a "unit" of work as a field of history studied five periods a week for one year, or three periods a week for two years.[u]

Several criticisms were directed towards the report of the committee. The first was the proposed extension of the field of Ancient history to 800 A. D. Since it was to be followed by Mediæval and modern history, this extension was deemed unwise by many. Another criticism was based upon the large proportion of time devoted to ancient and mediæval history as compared with the modern. The teachers of the classics, who had declared at the Columbia conference, that Greek and Roman history should be required wherever possible in the list of entrance requirements, were being outvoted and borne down by the developments.

The American Historical Association in 1907, at the request of the Headmasters' Association, appointed a new committee, the Committee of Five, to review the work of the Committee of Seven and to "determine what changes, if any, were needed." While trying to retain the report of the preceding Committee with as little change as possible, the revisions introduced did place more emphasis upon the modern field. The ninth year, which concerns us, was left unchanged.[v]

But at the same time that these committees were reporting in the secondary field, some work was being done in arranging for work in the elementary field. The Committee of Fifteen on elementary education reported to Department of Superintendence of the National Educational Association in 1895. They recommended oral lessons in general history and biography,

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[u]Report of the Committee of Seven, 134-135.
[v]Report, Committee of Five, pages 2, 55, 56, 64.

sixty minutes a week, for the entire eight years. In addition to these oral lessons it was suggested that five textbook lessons per week be offered as follows:—

Seventh year, American history.
Eighth year, first half, Finnish American history up to the adoption of the Constitution.
Second half, study of the Constitution.

The later periods of American history "were not so well fitted for intensive study in school as the already classic period of our history" and were to be read at home.[w] The Committee of Fifteen were apparently of a most confiding disposition!

We are not yet finished with the Committees of Numbers. The Committee of Twelve of the National Educational Association, formed to study the problems of the rural schools, proposed a program of history suggestive of the French courses. It was as follows:

Group 1. (Ages 5-7.) Stories from biography, history and travels. Explanations of pictures.

Group 2. (Ages 7-9.) Current Events. Stories of eminent characters and memorable events.

Group 3. (Ages 9-11.) Extension of 2. Readings in United States history.

Group 4. (Ages 11-13.) Selected epochs of general history, with study of leading historical characters.[x]

Besides the reports of the committees, it is worth while to note some of the individual contributions in the field. The first two utilized the concentric or cycle basis for the arrangement of the work. In Germany and France the whole field of history was covered in two or more cycles. Gordy and Twitchell had seven cycles of American history, one in each of the first six grades, and one covering the seventh and eighth grades.[y] One of the members of the Committee of Seven, Miss Salmon, suggested a two cycle plan, beginning in the third grade and ending with the eighth. Grades five, six and seven and eight were almost exactly like the subjects proposed by the Committee for

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[w] Report of the Committee of Fifteen, pages 66, 70.
[x] Report of the Committee of Twelve, 174-175.
[y] Gordy and Twitchell, Pathfinder in American History.

the ninth, tenth, eleventh and twelfth. The third and fourth grades were stories which set forth the lives and adventures both historical and legendary, of the early Greek, German, Indian and American heroes.[z]

The second group of individual suggestions comes from normal school teachers, and they are based largely upon the culture-epoch theory. Miss Rice proposed constructive activities in building houses, utensils, etc., of primitive peoples, and reproducing their arts and inventions.[a] Kemp proposes—

First Grade—Primitive Aryans.
Second Grade—Ancient Egyptians, Hebrews, Phœnicians.
Third Grade—The ancient Greeks.
Fourth Grade—The story of the Romans.
Fifth and Sixth Grades—English history.
Seventh and Eighth Grades—American history.[b]

The general result of all these suggestions was to bring about a general confusion in history teaching in the grades. Many of the plans have good points in them—provided we grant the assumptions of the authors. And some of the plans contain valuable elements which must appear in any logical plan of history study.

Before discussing the pros and cons we must present two additional plans—the most recent and, in many respects, the best that have been offered. In 1905 the American Historical Association appointed the Committee of Eight, which reported in 1909, four years later. This Committee interests us, as its report covers two years of the junior high school course, and will form the basis, in part, of the final suggestions to be offered. The report was designed for the use of the teachers themselves as well as for school administrators. A complete eight years' work was outlined. Books of reference both for teacher and for pupil were suggested. The Committee made the further valuable suggestion of including work in civics from the fifth grade on through to and including the eighth. This is their program, which will be given in full:

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[z]Report of the Committee of Seven, supplement.
[a]Course of Study in History and Literature, Chicago, 1898.
[b]Kemp, E. W. An Outline of History in the Grades.

First Grade. Indian life. Stories connected with Thanksgiving Day and Washington's birthday. Stories connected with local events.

Second Grade. Indian life. Additional anniversary days, as Memorial Day. Further stories from local events.

Third Grade. Heroes of other times as Joseph, Moses, David, Ulysses, and so on to Columbus. More about the Indians. Independence Day.

Fourth Grade. Historical scenes and persons in Colonial days, American history.

Fifth Grade. Historical scenes and persons in American history continued. The rise of the great industries.

Sixth Grade. European background of American history. Selected topics from Greek, Roman and European history to end of Raleigh's Colonial enterprises.

Seventh Grade. American history to close of the Revolution. European backgrounds.

Eighth Grade. American history since the Revolution.[c]

It will be noted that the Committee formulated their report with due deference to both the culture-epoch theory and to the cycle plan of development. The first five grades, or rather grades three, four and five, constitute a real cycle of history as appreciable by the pupils of those ages. Grades one and two may be described as culture-epoch grades. With this report as a part basis there will later be shown the full twelve year course.

Another report of great interest, in that for the first time the Junior High School is recognized as such is that prepared by the Committee on Social Studies of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education of the National Education Association.

This Committee made a preliminary Report in 1914, which was printed by the Bureau of Education as 1914 Bulletin 41. The final report was also published by the Bureau as 1916 Bulletin 28, from which Bulletin the following facts are quoted:

Seventh year

(1) Geography, one-half year.

European history, one-half year. These two courses may be taught in sequence, or parallel through the year.

Civics, taught as a phase of the above and of other subjects, or segregated in one or two periods a week, or both. As an alternative course for the seventh year the suggestions embodied in (2) are offered.

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[c]Report of the Committee of Eight.

(2) European history, one year.
Geography, taught incidentally to, and as a factor in, the history.
Civics, taught as a phase of the above and of other subjects, or segregated in one or two periods a week, or both.

Eighth year

American history, one-half year.
Civics, one-half year. These two courses may be taught in sequence, or parallel, throughout the year.
Geography, taught incidentally to and as a factor in, the above subjects.

Ninth year

(1) Civics, continuing the work of the preceding year, with more emphasis laid on State. National and world aspects, one-half year.
Civics, economic and vocational aspects, one-half year.
History: Much use made of history in relation to the topics of the above courses. As an alternate to the ninth year (1) course suggested above, the one below, (2) is proposed.

(2) Civics, economic and vocational.
Economic history—the two to cover one year's work, either in sequence or parallel.[d]

Before discussing this plan, or suggesting criticisms or changes, it might be well to define civics as we mean it in junior high school work. It must be understood that the traditional study or form and structure of government is practically abandoned or rather replaced by the study of function. The points of contact between governmental agencies and the individual citizen are picked out, and the benefits to the citizen, as well as his responsibilities, are set forth in various ways—as will be shown in the treatment of method. In this newer, so-called "community civics" such topics are considered as Health, Protection of life and property, Recreation, Education, Civic beauty, Wealth, Communication, Transportation, Migration, Charities, and Correction, with some consideration of how governmental agencies are financed and conducted, and some discussion of voluntary agencies.[e]

All of the above mentioned plans contain matter and suggestions which must be considered carefully in any final plan.

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[d]Bureau of Education, 1916, Bulletin 27.
[e]U. S. Bureau of Education, 1915, Bulletin 23.

These criticisms, however, may well be directed against the report last cited.

1. No proper consideration has been given to the work as planned for the lower grades. A great many city systems are basing the lower grade work on the Report of the Committee of Eight. When due consideration is given to this fact it will be seen that a course based upon this junior high school schedule will not dovetail. The Seventh year work proposes repetitions of what has been suggested for the Sixth year in the Committee of Eight schedule. No such emphasis need be laid upon European history with pupils coming into the Seventh year from the Sixth year as given by that Committee.

2. Geography is emphasized throughout as a social study whereas really the recent tendency seems to be to make it one of the sciences. Certainly many of the things that should be studied in geography are scientific rather than social. And if a separate offering be made of vocations, there is no need for taking time needed for other phases of social study and devote this time to geography.

3. This brings us to the third criticism. The course all too apparently is for children of predominantly American traditions. A study of the statistics of any large commercial or industrial American city reveals the fact that the population of foreign birth or parentage is vastly in the majority. Not only is there a large proportion, but an actual majority of such people. For illustration seventy per cent of all the people in Cleveland, Ohio, are of foreign birth or parentage. With these facts in mind, it might well be argued that the strictly social studies should have more time in the junior high school. These young people, from homes in which the customs, habits, points of view and attitudes toward government are all European, need more opportunity to absorb our American point of view on various topics. Therefore in a course which will presently be discussed, European history and geography will be reduced in importance and weight.

4. The remaining criticism is one that has arisen out of recent events and for the basis of which the Committee should

not be held accountable. The events in the world since 1914 have revealed, amidst our boasted civilization, an underlying pressure of racial antagonism, bigotry and ignorance which has the superficial appearance of noisy patriotism, but which tends to destroy all true patriotism. Can we not offer some course to our Junior high school pupils that will tend to promote a higher and better international understanding? It is perhaps planned by the last quoted Committee that the suggested European history meet this need. But does it? Are the international relations of the American people wholly with Europe? Evidently there is a lack in the Committee report.

To set up a course of study for the social studies independently of those upon which the Committees have done such excellent work may seem presumptuous. And yet as has elsewhere been noted, our duty is not only to study the best needs of the children who are to work over the material, but also to consider changing conditions. The junior high school cannot be considered as detached and distinct from the schools below and above, yet its peculiar needs and aims must be considered. Therefore, in view of these considerations, an attempt will be made to set up and co-ordinate a twelve years' course in the social studies. Below is such a course in outline. The explanation will follow in detail. The years indicate, of course, school years.

First year: Indian life. Stories connected with Thanksgiving Day and Washington's birthday. Stories connected with local events. (From Report of the Committee of Eight.)

Second year: Indian life. Additional anniversary days, as Memorial Day. Additional stories from local history. (Same source as above.)

Third year: Heroes of other times as Joseph, Moses, David, Ulysses, and so on up to Columbus. More about Indians, Independence Day. (Same source as above.) Home citizenship.

Fourth year: Historical scenes and persons from colonial American history. School room citizenship. (Committee of Eight.)

Fifth year: Historical scenes and persons from American history continued. Good citizenship in school yard and recreation field. (Committee of Eight.)

Sixth year: European background of American history. Selected topics from Greek, Roman and European history to end of Raleigh's colonial enterprises. Citizenship on streets, in stores, etc. (Committee of Eight.)

Seventh grade: American history and Civics to end of War of 1812. Civics to be partly correlated with the American history as indicated. (The three years of the junior high school period will be analyzed more in detail with a suggested schedule for the use of the classroom teacher. This analysis follows the general outline of the twelve years' work.)

Eighth year: American history to present time, with properly correlated lessons in Community Civics. Current Events either one period a week in both seventh and eighth years, or a few minutes each day.

Ninth year: Lessons in Vocational guidance for the first half year.
Lessons in World Relations of the United States, second half.

Tenth year: Ancient and Mediæval history finishing the first half with the death of Constantine, second half with accession of Louis XIV.

Eleventh year: Modern European history ending first half with work of the Congress of Vienna.

Twelfth year: American history since 1760 for ½ year.
Second half, Civil Government, or Economics, or Social Problems.

All through the last three years, Current Events one period a week, using "Outlook," "Independent" or "Literary Digest."

Before going into the details of the junior high school course, a few comments on the above skeleton outline are in order. After the first two years' work, which embody suggestions based partly upon the culture-epoch theory, three cycles of work are presented.

Grades III, IV and V constitute the first cycle of stories and biography, covering the entire cycle of history. Grades VI, VII, VIII, and IX constitute the second or four year cycle, the second half of the ninth completing the cycle as well as "selling" the work of the next cycle to the pupil by arousing his interest and curiosity. Grades X, XI and XII constitute the third cycle of world history.

The first six grades are based entirely upon the report of the Committee of Eight, the seventh and eighth grades partly upon the report of the same committee modified from the third

grade on by suggestions on the teaching of citizenship. The ninth grade is based partly upon the Report of the Committee on the Reorganization of Secondary Education and partly upon the practice in the city of Cleveland, where the course on World Relations of the United States is being tried out in a number of the junior high schools.

The Senior high school cycle is almost exactly in accord with the Report of the Committee on the Reorganization of Secondary Education. Discussion of the junior high school course in greater detail.

Seventh year, first semester.

American History.

A. Old World Background, 6 lessons of history.

B. The Explorers, 12 lessons of history.

C. The Colonies, 23 lessons of history, 11 of civics (see below).

D. Struggle for Colonies, 10 lessons of history.

Civics.

C1 The Community Concept. To awaken the idea that our welfare depends upon others, and that the welfare of others depends upon us. (Several type lessons in civics will be given later.)

C2 Development of the Social Concept. The pupil brought to realize that mankind is in a state of progress and that, as a social group, we have arrived at certain social concepts of law, responsibility, use of leisure, use of surplus wealth, etc.

C3 The Home and the Family as a Community. The pupils, especially the girls, to realize that the city, state, and nation are extensions of the home idea, and that the best home builder is the best type of citizen.

C4 Housing Conditions. The pupils brought to realize the value of city housing regulations, and to co-operate in the remedying of improper and unsanitary conditions.

C5 Disposal of Garbage. Pupils brought to realize the waste of garbage, and to feel a disgust for unsanitary containers.

C6 The Water Supply. Pupils brought to feel the need of co-operation in extending, improving and conserving the city water supply.

C7 Disposal of Sewage. Pupils brought to realize the dangers of sewage, and consider favorably and intelligently a development of the sewage disposal system.

Only seven topics are listed for the eleven lesson periods assigned. But several of these topics, especially the last four, should have two lessons to the topic.

Current events—a general discussion at the end rather than a special discussion with each semester's work.

The Seventh year—second semester.

American History.

A. Colonial Conditions in 1763. 3 lessons in history.
B. Politics of the Colonies—2 lessons of history.
C. Development of the grievances against England. 5 lessons of history, 1 of civics.
D. Fighting for rights as Englishmen. 4 lessons of history, 1 of civics.
E. Fighting for Independence—5 lessons of history, 1 of civics.
F. United States as part of an International Alliance. 6 lessons of history.
G. The Critical Period. 6 lessons of history and 6 of civics.
H. Government by Federalists. Four lessons of history.
I. The Farmers in Power. Four lessons of history.
J. The Great Lands of the West: 6 lessons of history and 5 of civics.
K. Foreign affairs (including war of 1812): 6 lessons of history. Civics lessons. The lessons should be given in connection with the topics with which they are listed, at least a day to each lesson.

C1. Police protection. The pupil to develop a willingness to assume the share of a responsible citizen for the public safety.

D1. Protection by Army and Navy. To arouse in the pupil a consciousness of personal responsibility for the protection of the nation and its ideals.

E1. How governments borrow money. To develop a willingness to help the government when necessary, and a proper idea of the circumstances under which government should or should not borrow.

G1. Meaning of Confederation. To show why a confederation is a failure (discussion of League of Nations) and explain need for present constitution.

G2. Citizen, his rights and duties. To arouse a consciousness of the dignity and responsibility of citizenship even if the citizens are as yet school children.

G3. Division of power. The duties of the Federal government compared with those of the local and state government. The wisdom of such division.

G4. The Executive. Appreciation of the importance of a central executive who can be held responsible for the public welfare.

G5. The Legislature. Develop the ideas of the relation of lawmaking to the public welfare, and the importance of holding law-makers responsible.

G6. The Judiciary. Appreciation of the importance of safeguarding civil rights and a willingness to co-operate in jury duty.

J1. Communication—the Post Office. Realization of the benefits of the service and of the importance of care in using its facilities.

J2. Communication—Press, telephone, telegraph, wireless. Distinction between liberty and license in the press. Function of rapid communication as a bond of national unity and possible world unity.

J3. Railway terminals and Port. How these contribute to the prosperity of the city and to the convenience of the citizens.

J4. City Transit. An appreciation of its importance in the development of a modern city, and a jealous care lest the corporation secure unfair advantages.

J5. Accidents in Transportation. Greater watchfulness and care on streets and around railroad property.

Eighth year, first semester.

American History.

A. Domestic Policies—4 lessons of history.

B. Westward Movement to the Pacific—4 lessons of history and 1 of civics.

C. The Industrial Revolution. 5 lessons of history, 5 of civics.

D. Changes in American Life—15 lessons of history and 4 of civics.

E. The gathering clouds of the Great Conflict. 8 lessons of history and 1 of civics.

F. The Civil War. 14 lessons of history.

Civics.

B1. Transportation. Appreciation of value of country roads to a city dweller. Realization of the value of the railroads as bonds of national unity. Revival of interest in canals.

B2. Accidents in Transportation. Greater watchfulness in streets, around railroads, on boats, etc.

C1. Accidents in Industry. A greater care in all branches of industry for human life and limb, and a healthy public sentiment to enforce this feeling.

C2. Labor of Women and Children. Realization that the future of the race is imperiled if women and children work too hard.

C3. The Education of the Worker. Bringing home the fact that the educated worker is a social asset, and that there is a social responsibility for his training.

C4. Patents and Copyrights. Esteem for the inventor and the writer, and a respect for their rights in the fruits of their thinking.

C5. Streets and their care. As pupils, a feeling of responsibility for the cleanliness of the streets. As future taxpayers, an intelligent criticism of paving, etc.

D1. Homes and Streets. Pride in the appearance of the home, the school, the immediate neighborhood. The benefits of an attractive environment.

D2. Parks and Boulevards. Willingness to see money spent to beautify the city. Developing the idea of a beautiful environment being an economic asset.

D3. Libraries as a Source of Education. An eagerness to use all the library facilities, and to encourage the extension of the service they afford.

D4. Recreation. A desire to support public recreation projects, to use their facilities, and to develop fair play.

E1. Political Parties. A perception as to what constitutes the right function of a political party, and the right relation of a citizen to such a party.

Eighth year—second semester:

American History.

A. Reconstruction. 7 lessons of history and 5 of civics.

B. The Growth of the Far West. 5 lessons of history, 2 of civics.

C. The Workers, Native and Immigrant. 10 lessons of history, 2 of civics.

D. Questions of Labor, Capital and Finance. 8 lessons of history, 3 of civics.

E. United States and Foreign Affairs. 5 lessons of history and 2 of civics.

F. America as a World Power. 8 lessons of history and 1 of civics.

G. Recent American History. 9 lessons of history and 2 of civics.

Civics.

A1. Federal citizenship. Clearer idea of the meaning of citizenship as affected by the Civil War Amendments.

A2. Care of the Poor. Realization of the duty of the community to those who are unable to supply themselves with the necessities of life.

A3. Care of the Insane and Feeble-minded. Community responsibility for these people.

A4. Care of Criminals. The idea that crime can be lessened if the causes of crime are removed.

A5. Voluntary Agencies. The desire to participate in the Community Chest and other voluntary funds.

B1. The Growth of Cities. Reasons for this and the problems involved —economic and social.

B2. Safeguarding Property Titles. Meaning of title registration to land, automobiles, etc.

C1. Immigration. The idea of loyalty to the new home and its institutions as well as discussion as to the best ideals of the old home that should be retained.

D1. Corporations. Such an appreciation for the benefits of corporate activity as will lead the citizen to avoid both too great a liberality as well as too severe a repression towards them.

D2. Regulation of Commerce. Confidence that the government will treat the individual fairly.

D3. Civil Service. The idea that public service tasks should be awarded to those best fitted for them rather than to those most active in politics.

E1. Diplomatic Service. A clearer idea of the meaning of world citizenship and of the place of America as a world power.

F1. Reform of City Government. Necessity of changes in city government to meet new needs. Kind of government best for home town.

G1. Conservation of Forests and Minerals. Realization of the need of safeguarding the public welfare.

G2. Conservation of Water. Irrigation, Drainage, Water-power. Value of the back to the soil movement. The value of "white coal" and its future.

Ninth Year, first half.

Vocations. A list of possible vocations is prepared, which includes Professions, various Transportation occupations, the various Trades, the various Mercantile pursuits, Civil Service, etc. Each one is considered along the lines of the following outline:

I. Description of Occupation and its history.

II. Requirements for beginning the work.

1. Age of the beginner and qualities needed.
2. Preparation required, according to the rules of the trade or the laws of the state. (As in many professions.)
   a. What can be done in High School and College to prepare for the work.
   b. What must be done as apprentice or working learner.

III. Opportunities for the person choosing this occupation.

1. What noted leaders have done in the past.
2. What are the openings under to-day's conditions.
3. Can it be made a life work or is it a temporary or transient occupation?
4. The chance for service in advancing the welfare of society and the community.

IV. The tangible rewards.

1. The opportunity for the achievement of economic independence.
2. The opportunity for enjoyment of home life.
3. The relation of the occupation to health.

V. The intangible rewards.

1. The possibility of mental growth.
2. The social position attaching to the occupation.
3. The pleasantness or unpleasantness of the work itself.

Ninth Year, Second half.

World Relations of the United States. This course is planned as the "capstone course" of the Junior High School cycle of Social studies.

A "capstone course" should

A. Gather, review and interpret the studies of the cycle which it completes. This cycle has included American History and Civics, as well as some geography. The course should, therefore, review certain phases of this work, and interpret more broadly many of the pupil's acquisitions.

B. Suggest and arouse interest in the work of the following cycle. The Senior High School undertakes to present world history, both ancient and modern. The work of the capstone course should "sell" the Senior High School group of studies to the pupil.

C. Make a real contribution to the social needs of the pupil. The American Nation is by circumstances forced to take a place as a world power. Such an obligation can be adequately met only if the citizens of the United States have some idea of the world problems that arise out of our international relations.[f]

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[f]Ohio History Teachers' Journal, 1921, Bulletin 20.

After some ten periods of preliminary discussion designed to bring out the bonds of friendship and antagonism between some of the leading nations of the world, as well as some of our own past prejudices, the course takes up: (A) The British Isles; (B) British Dominions and Colonies; (C) France; (D) Italy; (E) Central European Powers; (F) Spain; (G) Mexico; (H) South America; (I) The Caribbean; (J) The Panama Canal; (K) Russia; (L) The South Slavs; (M) China; (N) Japan.

Each one of these topics is treated from three points:

1. The geography—people, language, climate, soil, surface, location, in short, the physical, economic and cultural geography.

2. History—No attempt is made to the main current of civilization is carefully indicated.

3. Relations with the United States—Past relations, friendly and unfriendly, with reasons. Present relations and the possible future.

These topics take about seventy class periods ranging from about twelve for the British Isles to three for some of the lesser ones. The final ten class periods are then devoted to two main topics—America's Responsibilities as a World Power, and the Responsibility of the Individual Citizen. A complete outline of this course, with a bibliography, was printed by the Ohio State University press as Bulletin Number 20, 1921.

The Work in Current Events:—It is a trite saying that the welfare of a democracy depends upon the intelligence of its citizens. But this fact cannot be emphasized too often, especially in the United States. Our citizens must have the critical faculty developed if the Republic is to endure. The experiment of government by all the people has never before succeeded permanently. It is for us to determine the factors that make for permanent success in this experiment, if such there be, and to make those factors function in the life of the citizen. One of these factors is an intelligent, broad-minded public opinion, interested not only in our own country, but world wide, as we have seen, in its extension. To help develop this, time should be allotted to Current Events in the school. The current literature of our country is rich in fact, comment and criticism.

To enable the pupil to use this literature to the best advantage is the task proposed.

The benefits of this study are numerous. The school work in other fields is vitalized. Interest in the fields of mathematics, history, science, English,—in short, of every branch of school work, is aroused. An interested pupil will remain longer in school, and will derive more benefit from the work of the school, than a driven one. In addition to the habits useful to the pupil, those useful to a citizen are formed. An apperceptive background is developed, making the task of the agitator and the soap-box orator very difficult. These studies will arouse sympathies that might have lain dormant, and a civic pride—a useful national asset. A closer inspection of the work of public officials, a more careful scrutiny of their claims to the votes of citizens, will make for greater economy and efficiency in the conduct of affairs. In the years to come it is not too much to hope that a new type of leader will be developed, making his appeal to the intelligence of the voter, and performing his tasks with the realization that his work must pass the rigid inspection of his constituents.

In the following outline some topics of interest have been suggested:

I. Men and women before the public. Of each,

1. In what field of effort has he become noted.
2. Attitude towards points of controversy in field.
3. Comparisons with others in this field.
4. Relation of news item under discussion to above points.

II. Activities of Federal and State governments.

1. Federal elections—points in dispute.
2. State elections—points in dispute.
3. Important discussions in Congress, laws and treaties.

III. Commerce.

1. Fluctuations in foreign commerce, reasons for same.
2. Various types of domestic commerce.
3. New routes—rail, river, canal. Terminals.
4. Measures of supervision and control.

IV. Labor problems.

1. Restrictions—women and children.
2. Strikes. Grievances, methods of settling.
3. Wages.

V. Educational, and religious, philanthropic.

1. Schools and Libraries—New buildings.
2. Colleges and Universities—Gifts, endowments.
3. Y. M. C. A., Community Chest, etc.
4. Churches. Matters of general interest.

VI. Foreign Affairs.

1. Our financial relations.
2. New treaties, conferences, etc. Debates in Senate.
3. Restoration of friendly relations.

VII. Industry.

1. Reasons for depression, hopes for revival.
2. Details of different trades—iron, rubber, automobile, farming, building.

VIII. Other nations.

1. Latin America should have special attention.
2. Question of liberal movements and their results.
3. Changes in government through elections or revolutions.
4. Welfare—prosperity or famine and pestilence.

IX. Art, Literature, Science and Invention.

To follow important developments in these fields as they occur. This subject will be further developed under the heading of Methods.

The civics lessons in the foregoing outline were suggested by title and aim only. It might be worth while to show the typical development of one of these lessons as to content and material. The "Water Supply" lesson will serve as an example.

Emotion building material (for discussion and presentation, but not for recall), History of water using—Roman aqueducts, the pools of Solomon (in the Bible), the American pioneers and their springs. Note the older colonial farmhouses placed in the valleys rather than on the hills.

The city supply, the increasing pollution of the streams, due to sewers, manufacturing plants, commercial laundries, clearing forests. The supplies of the other cities as—wells, in Kansas City; cisterns, as New Orleans; pure mountain streams, as New York; nearby river water filtered, as Philadelphia; nearby Great Lakes, as Chicago or Cleveland. Need for precautions—use typhoid figures for thirty years ago and for recent years. Construct graph if possible.

Vocabulary material. Pupil should know about aqueducts, reservoirs, filtration, cribs, mains, pollutions, chlorination, etc.

Habit forming activities. The facts concerning leaky spigots in the home. Computations as to amounts wasted. Planning water supply of country homes and camps. Visit to city plant.

Recall material. List of precautions taken by city to insure purity of supply as—filtration, chlorination, location of cribs in lake, sedimentation, protection of watershed, etc. Figures of daily per capita consumption as compared with other cities. Special supplies for fire fighting.

Material.

History of city's supply public records Zueblin, American Municipal Progress, Chapter VI. The Encyclopedia (Roman supply).

The foregoing discussion sets up a content for the Junior High School social studies course. There follows a discussion of method.

PART III. METHOD IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

History should be the one subject to which the pupils look forward with eagerness. It is the one subject in which it should be necessary to discourage options rather than encourage them, when options are allowed. "It is the irony of educational fate that what ought to be the most fascinating subject in the school program is all too often regarded by pupils as uninteresting and even useless. . . . A historical novel or romance with royalty and courtiers, beautiful princesses and bold soldier heroes appeals . . to the young people. But can any novel be more thrilling than many periods of history? Modern industry, inventions and customs, originated and have been evolved under circumstances 'stranger than fiction,' but the glory of this fact . . fails . . to arouse the high school pupil."[a] A few of

[a] Hall-Quest. Supervised Study, page 252.

the reasons why pupils dislike history, cited by the pupils themselves . . did not find it interesting, did not know why it was being studied, teacher did not like it, tried to do work in too advanced class.[b] Others gave . . could see no practical use in it . . just disliked it. For this deplorable state of mind there are several reasons. In the first place the organization of the history material through the pupils' school years has been simply primeval chaos. A superintendent sets up a new program. With some contortions the classes fit themselves into it . . some of the classes being obliged to repeat the work already done. Having, in a year or two, settled comfortably into the new schedule and having begun to reap the fruits of the well laid plan of the superintendent, along comes another new Committee report, and the whole thing is again torn up. In practically no school district to-day can any consistent theory of history teaching be organized and maintained for five years.

In the second place practically every schedule of history courses must take some of these elective and some required. However logical and well planned the continuity of the course appears on paper, very rarely does a pupil receive the benefit of this continuity. This is, of course, more generally true of the Senior high school pupil. But even in the latter whatever is planned for the ninth year must complete too often with other subjects in the optional group.

And in the third place, the teacher is to blame. This fault of the teacher may have several sources. The teacher may lack preparation. Whenever an English teacher or a manual training teacher has a vacant period in the program, give him a history class to make up the required time. This discussion will not take up the teacher's preparation fully, but every competent history teacher realizes exactly what will happen in such cases as are cited above. Another fault of the teacher, at least as far as junior high school history and civics are concerned, is too one-sided a preparation. It is seriously to be doubted whether an ex-college professor who took a doctorate in history is compe-

[b]Wayland. How to Teach American History. Chapter XVII.

tent to teach junior high school history. About as well qualified, perhaps, as an ex-judge to teach civics. Their tendency would be to bewilder and perplex the boys and girls rather than to enlighten them. And this defect, to a marked degree, is found in junior high school history teachers. Needless to cite other faults which any teacher may have as . . lack of sympathetic insight, fads, etc. They are not peculiar to history teachers.

The following discussion of methods should help the inquiring teacher to remedy some of the mistakes which have tended to create the unfriendly attitude toward history on the part of the pupils of our schools.

Years ago a favorite method of teaching history as well as other things was the catechetical method. The manual placed in the pupils' hands was a series of printed questions and answers. We had catechisms of religious doctrine, catechisms of geography, catechisms of science and of history. The idea was to have the children learn definite facts. There was a very slight element of dramatic interest—outside of which the catechetical method was helpful for the unlearned teacher. In the days of the Lancastrian school such methods were, perhaps, necessary. Outside of such schools there is little justification for the method, by which the pupils learned words and phrases, dates and opinions by rote and parrotwise.

Another method which was long a favorite with teachers may be called the narrative or lecture method. The teacher dictated slowly, the pupils copying his exact words with diligence. Before the invention of printing and the multiplication of books the lecture method was a necessary preliminary to any study, since books in manscript were far beyond the reach of school students. The narrative or talk still has a place in education, but rather with the advanced students in college than with the junior high school pupils. There is not enough of self-activity in such work with boys and girls to make it a real learning process with them to listen to narratives or lectures. Supplemented with readings, observations and discussions the teacher may use it sparingly and occasionally. In Europe the

method of oral instruction still prevails in all but the lowest classes of the Lycee. Rarely is the voice of the pupil heard. The present regulations require the teacher to do some questioning, but it is difficult for the older teachers to break up their old habits.

Indeed, in Belgium, it is considered the worst of pedagogical heresies to have a pupil recite.[c] But in America the teacher has long depended upon the text book assignments and the teacher "heard" the lesson. The ideal was to memorize the text, and verbally to repeat the sentences memorized. "After the Battle of Brandywine, Washington marched. James, go on." James went on until the teacher said "Next." After "next" had recited a while, "next" was called. It was a concession to weaker pupils when they were allowed to sum up a paragraph in their own words. This method is by no means extinct, and many older people to-day claim that when they recall history, it is these facts memorized in the lower school rather than history studied in college.

But memorization must not be wholly neglected in the social studies. The above criticism is directed towards the indiscriminate memorization of the entire text. But in the social studies as in English some facts should be absolutely mastered. The importance of habit formation has been stressed in the discussion of aim. If some parts of the subject matter are thoroughly and verbally memorized, a step has been taken in habit formation. Not that the pupil should be able to repeat the entire Constitution of the United States, but why not the Preamble? Not that all great speeches and orations should be learned, but why not the Gettysburg Speech and parts of the Second Inaugural? It is good for the pupil to know the Oath of the Ephebic Band and parts of the Defense of Socrates. There is no need to give a complete list of all the things the pupil should commit to memory. Besides these splendid inspirational passages, it is necessary to have a few dates . . perhaps fifty in all history . . clearly in mind.

Let us consider the question of method from the standpoint

[c]Ministere de l'Interieur et de l'Instruction Publique, 1905.

of the analysis of the learning process as outlined in the section of "Aim." According to this analysis the "Impression control" was to be one of the things to be developed in the mind of the pupil. For this impression control the social studies are a peculiarly appropriate means to the end sought. What "sensings" should the pupil have developed as a result of his study of history and civics? Can the subjects be handled in such a way that the impressions of the pupil will connect up with other and earlier impressions, strengthening them so as to achieve this form of control? Each of the girls has already certain notions of home-making, and of what is suitable for the real home. Cannot the teacher appeal to this almost instinctive love of a clean, healthful, beautiful home—a love found deep in the minds of the girls—and bring them to a sensing of a wider idea of the home that includes the entire community as an extension of the home idea, so that the girls will have the sensing of what is proper in making the community clean, healthful and beautiful? Almost all boys have, according to Judge Lindsey, the "gang" instinct—that is, an impulse which leads them to organize in gangs for amusement, athletics, sports and mischief. In the gang the ability to co-operate, to subordinate the individual for the welfare of the group, to "play the game according to the rules," is developed early in the minds of the boys. Can the teacher connect up this gang idea with the community idea, making the boys realize that the community is, in a real sense of the word, an enlarged gang, a gang in which all the familiar rules apply? Of course this matter should be so worked up that the notion is a sensing—a feeling of appropriateness and becomingness in civic matters. The method employed to realize this sensing in the civics students must be carefully planned by the teacher. It will consist not so much in the employment of special material as in the treatment of the material on hand. Certain emphases, inflections, illustrations and observations can be used to put the idea over. This is especially true in those civic problems which concern the school, school-yard and surrounding streets. As for the history students, or rather the history work of the students,

it has little to contribute in the field of sensings. But when we consider the problem of "realizations," which is the second of the forms of impression control, history has a decided contribution to make. By picture or models, such as are mentioned in H. G. Well's "Undying Fire," the realization of the dynamic aspect of history may be brought about. In this work it is suggested that a series of models and pictures representing the entire evolution of the race be prepared and placed where the pupils will see them. In this way, by the use of the material indicated, a realization of change and growth as inherent in human activity becomes part of the pupil's experience. Other realizations, as the facts of civil and religious liberty, will result from the employment of stories and other more extended types of fiction which should be carefully selected.

When it comes to "attitudes" the third of the forms of impression control, the social studies, especially history and civics, have an important contribution to make. By selecting such material as: statistical tables which may be reduced to graphs, personal incidents, concerning historical characters, newspaper clippings which describe civic activities (wherein comes one of the uses of Current Events), records of past failures and successes in the achievement of various social aims, posters worked out by pupils for Health, Kindness to Animals, Cleanup Campaign, etc.,—all these help to make permanent that form of the emotion or impression control which has to do with our likes and dislikes, admirations, contempts, respects and hatreds that go to make up the Attitude form of the Impression Control.

The same remarks hold true of the Standard form of the Impression Control. Biography and biographical incidents culled with care from the historical material at our disposal help to establish the standards of things attainable in the minds of the pupil. His ambition may be fired by stories of Bell, Edison, Grant, Lincoln, Wesley, and many other characters. In the teaching of Vocations, the goal of attainment may be set much higher than it otherwise would be if the pupil has a chance to learn about Florence Nightingale, Madame Curie, Agassiz, Darwin, or the great leaders of our modern industrial

and commercial world. The establishment of such Standards will help the pupil to avoid the "blind alley" occupations. In the Civics work in the same way standards of civic conduct may be established or strengthened.

But the teacher must not stop here. It is well for the boy or girl to have the right sensings, realizations, attitudes and standards. But if we are doing what we ought to do, the development of the impression control need not and must not stop with this. By continuing our building up of the emotional background of impression control, the teacher must strive to secure a cumulation of impression until it translates itself into individual action on the part of the pupil. Indeed, in order to make these motives permanent the work of building up the impression control must be continued and emphasized as strongly and as continuously as the teacher can. A quotation from Doctor Yocum may help to make this clear: "The form of sensational or emotional appeal which counts the most varies with the relationship that is to be made impressive, and must be adapted to it. Description of emotional action, literature, eloquence, music, dramatization, allusion, visual representation through model, sculpture or picture, sometimes one and sometimes the other, but, so far as possible, all must be brought to bear whenever the relationship is important enough for its emotional associations to be made sure."[d]

Since the civics work is supposed to influence strongly the volitional life of the child, the impression control should be developed and studied by the teacher with the greatest care. The mistake must not be made of requiring all the material studied to be remembered. Much of it can be forgotten as soon as the pupil leaves the classroom. But as the lessons go on from day to day the teacher will continually bring new facts, figures, news items, pictures, personal observations, etc., to the attention of the class, all designed to strengthen the impression. This impression will necessarily be cumulative if the material is selected with care. The teacher building up an impression control for the improvement of community health will not, by his attitude,

[d]Yocum, A. D. Culture, Discipline and Democracy.

words or illustrations, lead the pupils to feel that the improvement of the water supply is a waste of money. If the administration of justice is under consideration, the teacher will not deplore the necessity of citizens being torn from their daily life and work to serve on the juries. It is easy to create a wrong impression and to do more harm than good. On the other hand the teacher should not deliberately try to "convert" the entire class to his way of thinking on such matters as the single tax, the tariff and other points about which the wisest have honest differences of opinion.

In considering the development of the Vocabulary Control by means of the Social Studies, we are confronted, as in all new branches of learning taken up, with the necessity of the development of the proper vocabulary for that science. In resurveying the various types of this control, however, we see that not all of them are aided equally by the social studies. This is true especially for the first one of Doctor Yocum's list. Words which conspicuously label the experiences of the pupil do not occur as frequently as some of the other types of control. Although the civics student, studying about health, must become familiar with such words as sanitation, quarantine, vaccination, inoculation, these words are already, in most cases, in the pupil's vocabulary before he arrives in the junior high school. In history there is little of this form of control to be worked up, although since our modern architects borrow so freely from the classical and Renaissance styles of architecture, the names of these styles of architecture should be reasonably familiar to the pupil. The second of the forms of vocabulary control, that is, words which are readily retainable through their form, derives still less of its development from the social sciences.

But when we consider the question of the "general terms" under which other words may be assembled, we are in a field where the social studies have an important contribution to make. In civics suppose some general term as "democracy" is learned. Around it the teacher will group words such as equality, fraternity, suffrage, and other words that stand for democratic things. If the word war is under consideration, the various

ranks of the officers might be learned, as well as all the new words that arise, such as barrage, manœuvre, and other words associated with war and its weapons. Associated with some period of history there will be such words as wampum, tepee, canoe, sachem, etc., or with some other period such words as colony, redemptioner, proprietor. So that in either history or civics there is place for the development of the general terms in vocabulary control.

In any consideration of the third form of control, called the Variation Control, the teacher must at once be impressed with the importance of the contribution made by history, civics and current events. Taking the first of the varieties of this form of control, that is, experiences suggestive of many ideas, almost any problem assigned from the current events may be made fruitful. To take an illustration: If the building of a new school house is under discussion, or is actually being carried on under the observation of the pupil, the class will doubtless discuss and associate many ideas with it. What is the style of architecture and why? What are some of the features of the new building lacking in older structures? Or suppose the election of a governor is the topic being discussed. Around this experience of the pupils may be grouped ideas of former elections, of other methods of voting, of new and better ways of nominating, and of such things as qualifications and terms of office in our state as compared with other states. If the pupil is studying a civics lesson, and the lesson is on Pure Water, the pupil will associate with this idea all the various precautions taken in different parts of the world to insure pure water for human use.

The second type of variation control consists of ideas suggestive of many experiences. Here again history and civics have an important contribution to make. The pupils are led to recall things in their experience which are related to the idea. If the idea, in civics, is "recreation," there are many experiences, not only in the field of recreation itself, but in the attitude of the community towards recreation. Perhaps there have been cases in which the pupil was ordered off the street

when trying to play ball. Perhaps there is a recreation field near the pupil's home. Around this idea may be gathered many of the pupil's experiences. Or if, in the history lesson, the idea of "slave" has been made clear, around this idea may also be gathered many of the experiences of the pupil. Questions of minors at work and their relations (economically) to their parents, discussions, centering on "wage-slaves" and a whole group of experiences associated with this idea—all these can be brought out in the history lesson. Around the idea of colonization we will be able, at least in our large cities, to group an interesting series of experiences on the part of some of the pupils who have come over from Europe to make their homes in America.

Location for ideas is another form of variation control in which the social studies are an important contributing factor. Here is where history makes a valuable contribution to the variation control. There are numbers of devices at the disposal of the teacher who wishes to emphasize this form of the variation control. One teacher, finding her class confused by the fact that the text book took up matters by topics rather than chronologically, drew vertical lines about 18 inches apart on the board at the side of the room, heading each column by dates 25 years apart. In this way it was easy, as the topic was developed, to note the proper dates in the proper sequence. Since she also left standing the dates of the development of the other topics, many new associations were noticed between events that would have otherwise escaped the attention of the pupil. For instance, several economic topics, as, the industrial revolution in America, the tariff, the building of railways, etc., were traced across the quarter-centuries. Then the question of the State and Federal relations was also traced across the board. The pupils readily saw the economic phases of this question—the fact that as one section after another was injured or benefited by the economic measures of the Federal Government, the tide of loyalty rose and fell. Another striking illustration of the location-time variation control was offered by the same teacher in a similar development of the events of the century 1600-1700. As the tide of revolution rose and fell in England, so the tide of immigration

to Massachusetts or Virginia rose and fell. After noting the facts on the outline one of the young boys remarked, "Well, how was the Union ever formed?" But this is not the limit of the value of the location type. If we assume, as we may, that the experiences mentioned under the first sub-division of variation control may each be locations, we open the field to a still wider use of this form of control. Here the teacher should try to enrich the experience of the child with all possible useful ideas. Why do people who have suffered economic wrongs advocate such peculiar remedies? Because there has not been associated with the experience enough of ideas drawn from history to steer them into the correct path. Why must we, every twenty years, fight down some form of the fiat money delusion? Because the experiences of the race with fiat money are forgotten or never learned. Why is the development of scientific forestry such a slow process in America? Because in the minds of the people lingers the colonial idea of a tree as something to get rid of. Around the experience there has not been gathered the ideas of eroded farmlands, dried-up springs, agricultural desolation in Palestine, Mesopotamia and China. So whether we are considering the subjects of vocations, current events, history or civics, the location form of the variation control is one of the vitally important ones for the history teacher or social studies teacher to consider.

It will be found worth while by any teacher to do some exhorting in the field of idea suggesters both in history and civics. For many years practical politicians have been working to secure such suggesters of ideas for the purpose of teaching the people the merits of the particular contentions upon which the campaign is being fought. What can equal the beautiful alliteration of "Fifty-Four Forty or Fight?" All through the course of our history as well as the history of other nations these striking idea suggesters have from time to time been employed, from Cæsar's "Veni Vidi Vici" to "He Kept Us Out of War." The idea suggestions involved in the expression of "Black Republican" functioned as strongly in the south as the idea suggester of "Bleeding Kansas" in the north—possibly even more

strongly. A whole group of ideas are associated with the "Crime of '73." Now, can the teacher of history and civics select idea suggesters, arrange them in such order and sequence, and get them across with the class, so that additional impetus will be given to the growth of the variation control in that class? Such suggesters may be developed out of alliterations, alphabetical sequences, acrostics, rhymes, or any of the popular mnemonic devices. There is abundant room for investigation in this field.

The social studies, especially history and civics, have an important contribution to make in the field of habit system control. Right habits are extremely useful things to develop. These habits may be trained to function in the learning process as well as in the social life, of the pupil—both types are worth working for in the case of the junior high school pupil who has much to learn, and who is also entering more and more fully into social experiences. Doctor Yocum describes the first of these two forms of habit-control as "habits essential to impression, vocabulary and variation control." If the teacher continuously and consciously strives to develop the first three of these forms of control, the pupil will in time develop the habits essential to the development of impression, vocabulary and variation control. If, when the teacher is trying to improve the impression control by the devices mentioned above, he persists from day to day in using the facts, figures, stories, incidents, pictures, etc., gradually there is built up in the mind of the pupil the habit of seeing these things for himself when they occur in the newspapers, or come under his observation in other ways. In this way the impression strengthens itself long after the pupil has passed from the direct influence of the teacher, and the teacher has succeeded in his attempt to make the impressions permanent. In like manner the pupil will in time accustom himself to look for the suggesters of words and ideas, to make new ones for himself, and to employ them for the accumulation of additional words or ideas. Persistence on the part of the teacher, and a continuous repetition of method will act to bring this about.

Of the habit system control types which shall be socially

useful the first that concerns us have been named habits specifically useful in themselves. Habits are, of course, developed by employing frequently recurring things or experiences. They should be repeated at effective intervals. The social studies offer some opportunity for the growth of these specifically useful habits. The girl who studies civics will form the habit, if properly encouraged, of considering the cleanliness and beauty of the school and the community a responsibility resting upon her shoulders. Among the boys in the same way such habits should be developed and made permanent. This involves, on the part of the teacher, the planning of numerous activities, and a persistence in the use of these activities to the point where the habit is formed and made permanent. Persistent attention to the corridors and classroom floors, for which some degree of responsibility is imposed upon the pupil, will in time create habits which, when properly emotionalized through interest, etc., will tend to become permanent. . . The same might be said of the habits of thrift and economy. Interest is aroused in the school savings bank. No opportunity is neglected to show the advantages of these accounts, and soon habits of thrift develop. Habits that are socially useful in the care of public property can be developed by the use of the free textbooks and the proper care of this form of property.

The generally useful habits, which are another form of the habit system control, really form a link with the transfer control which will be considered next. Habits of industry, of honesty, of sobriety, of wise rather than foolish use of leisure time, are not only specifically useful for particular occasions, but will be generally useful in the development of this type of control, if, through interest and other motivating factors, long persisted in, through curiosities aroused through familiarities with books and their uses, the teacher guides the pupil into the right paths.

The last of the kinds of control with which we have to deal is the transfer control. As Doctor Thorndyke says: "No one can doubt that all the ordinary forms of home or school training have some influence upon mental traits in addition to the specific changes which they make in the particular function the

improvement of which is their direct object'' (Educational Psychology). He goes on to raise the question as to the degree to which this occurs, and lays down the general thesis that a change in any one function alters any other only so far as the two functions have as factors identical elements—that is, the change in the second function is in amount that due to the change in the elements common to it and the first. For the purpose it is not necessary to follow Doctor Thorndyke in his demonstration. His conclusions are at present widely accepted. But it is within our province to examine how far the social studies will make for transfer control, and what methods will make that control operative in the experience of the pupils under our care.

We then have two questions to consider: First, are there common elements in the social studies and in other activities and experiences of the pupil? Second, how are we to make those common factors evident and operative in the lives of the pupils so that the elements in the social studies will influence the elements found to be in common with them in the other activities of the pupil?

To the first question we can immediately answer, Yes. In the social studies we can find many elements which are common to other present and future experiences of the pupil. In the course of the work in civics the question of obedience to the rules of the game is taken up. This idea has elements in common to various experiences. The same might be said about the health of the pupil, his attitude and opinions about certain historical occurrences and governmental activities.

It is not necessary to enlarge upon the experiences which have the elements in common with the other experiences. But if the idea is sufficiently emotionalized to become general (Doctor Bagley's Emotionalized General Idea) the essential elements will transfer into other fields. Obedience to the rules of the classroom, the school, or the home can, by motivating them through the ideas of the sports, the gang, etc., can be made to transfer.

To conclude this phase of method, it is enough to say that

the teacher need not call the attention of the children to the things he is trying to do. The teacher must work out for himself those elements and factors which make for the different forms of control. They cannot be listed, since to make them highly functional they must vary from time to time so that the appeal to the experiences and observations of the pupil may be made as strong as possible. For instance, there has been no reference to history drawn from local sources, and yet the use of such material in the hands of the teacher may be highly useful in developing some of the forms of control. The discussions of the current events class contribute to the same end. As the pageant of history unrolls itself in the daily record or weekly summary of the deeds of persons who are making history, this material can be used to arouse curiosity, stimulate interest, and develop enthusiasm. Of course there are certain phases of history that are always useful in developing the controls. Orations of the great leaders may be used either to emotionalize positively, as in the cases of Lincoln, Webster, Burke and others, or may be used to show what ought not to be, as in such cases as Calhoun, Wigfall, von Bethmann-Holweg, etc. There is real value in the story of Valley Forge and Bunker Hill. Phrases such as "I have not yet begun to fight" or "Don't give up the ship" or "A little more grape, Captain Bragg," or "If any man tries to haul down the American flag, shoot him on the spot," have a value of which the skillful teacher will avail himself to the full.

The question of classroom method must now be considered briefly. As we have seen at the beginning of this section, there have been many such methods in the past, some of which, in the light of the things we are trying to do with the social studies, were open to objection. Classroom method must take into account the social aims of this group of studies, and especially must the teacher consider the purposes and limitations of the junior high school idea. There have been many willing workers in the field, and a number of methods for handling the class have been developed. These must be considered with a view to the social aim of the social studies, to the pedagogical aim and,

as noted, with the purpose of junior high schools in mind. Some of the methods are:

The Socialized Recitation.
The Laboratory Method.
The Source Method.
The Picture Method.
The Project Method.
Dramatization.

None of these alone will be considered as the one and only method of handling the studies of our group. As will be seen, when we consider the social and other aims of the junior high school work, we may find that each of the methods listed above has something of a contribution to make to the development of the child into a self-respecting member of the community. Some of them will be found almost impracticable for the ordinary junior high school teacher because of the lack of facilities.

Others are impracticable because of the grade of work and the degree of mental growth of junior high school pupils. And yet the interested teacher will not wholly discard the Source Method because it works best in a University Seminar. He will not discard Pictures because his District is too poor to buy a high-priced projector. Twenty years ago we heard a great deal about the "Source Method." "The textbook is doubtless as essential as ever as a means of supplying the learner with a coherent outline of the subject, but this outline must be given reality and life by recourse to fuller and more vivid account of events and persons than can be looked for in even the most carefully constructed manual. . . . Few teachers now question the expediency of the newer method if only the illustrative extracts can be brought into organic relation with the general historical narrative so that there may be no danger of confusing the student."[1] There are, therefore, available for the student of American History several collections such as Hart's American History told by Contemporaries and MacDonald's Select Charters and Documents. Judiciously used and not abused, a strong interest can be aroused in the pupil. But the great

[1]Robinson, J. H. Readings in European History, Preface.

danger lies in the excessive use of this source material until the pupil becomes weary and bored. Doctor Channing has this to say of the Source Method: "In the University with the highest students, those who are on the last lap of the road toward the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, the teaching of facts by the use of sources is not only permissible, but is the best way. But to apply this idea to the inculcating of the primal facts of history to children in grammar school is absurd. There is nothing which requires more skill in handling and from which more dangerous and false deduction may be drawn than the writings of contemporaries."[k]

Perhaps it is not necessary to go quite so far in either direction as is indicated in the quotations from the two professors. When trying to develop the idea of the secession sentiment, the speech of Senator Wigfall as quoted in Hart's Contemporaries will help our junior high school pupil more than half an hour's talking by the teacher. Then compare Lincoln's First Inaugural. Source material helps to arouse and sustain interest.

In the junior high school there is a fine opportunity for trying out the project method in the various departments of work. Naturally the exploratory manual training work offers the most obvious starting point with this method. But the field of the social studies also affords room for the development of many projects. Consider the meaning of the project and its differentiation from the ordinary problem. "Both project and problem exercise," according to Randall, "are special varieties of question and problem. A question calls for a statement of knowledge on the part of the person questioned and of necessity only for a repetition of fact. A problem is a question demanding the organization of knowledge and the exercise of judgment before the answer is given. . . . A school project is a problem the solution of which results in the production of some object or knowledge of such value to the worker as to make the labor involved seem to him worth while."[l]

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[k]Channing, Edward. History Teachers' Magazine, May, 1913, p. 121.
[l]Randall, J. A. National Education Association Report, 1915, pages 1009-12.

From this it may be deduced that the primary purpose of the project is not necessarily the activity of the pupil but the pupil's satisfaction with results attained.

Again, the project need not necessarily result in "concrete achievement," but may result in the production of some object or of some knowledge. "Projects," says Professor Charters, "seem to be attempts to return to the concrete conditions of home education from the abstract isolation of the school. A project presupposed natural activities flowing in simultaneous currents. Problems arise, they are analyzed and solved and are made to perform their intrinsic functions in actual situations."[m] Doctor Kilpatrick says: "If we conceive activities as ranging on a scale from those performed under dire compulsion up to those in which one puts his whole heart, the argument—restricts "project"—to the upper portion of the scale."[n] If interest then, and the attitude of the pupil to the task be the teacher's test of a successful project, it might be well for the teacher, in planning this work, to bear in mind Professor Dewey's statement: "Interest is obtained not by thinking consciously about it and consciously aiming at it, but by considering and aiming at the conditions that lie back of it, and compel it. If we can discover a child's urgent needs and powers and if we can supply an environment of materials, appliances and resources, physical, social and intellectual—to direct their adequate operation—we shall not have to think about interest. It will take care of itself. The problems of educators, teachers, parents, the state, is to provide the environment that induces educative or developing activities, and where these are found the one thing needful in education is secured."[o]

In the especial field of history we find many opportunities for the project. It is almost impossible adequately to suggest these in permanent form, but rather we might attempt to show how each teacher should approach the task. As a matter of primary importance, from the standpoint of interest as well as

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[m]Charter, W. W. Journal of Home Economics, March, 1918.
[n]Kilpatrick, W. H. Teachers' College Record, Sept., 1918.
[o]Dewey. Interest and Effort in Education, page 95.

from the standpoint of primary aim, projects should be based upon

I. Anniversary days—especially for the younger pupils. These days should include anniversaries of important local events as well as those of national and world wide interest.

II. Birthdays of eminent men, especially if an effort is made on these occasions to get away from the stereotyped features usually associated with these occasions, and to develop real and vitally significant facts in their careers.

III. But more especially the current events should be used as the starting point for many projects. If a great wage question is up, or a strike, the historical development of labor including slavery, serfdom and peonage, can be worked out. New tariffs or taxes are a good starting point for important projects. A new railroad, canal or highway proposed in the community may be the basis for a study of transportation. Some great criminal trial can be made to lead up to a development of the growth of our civic rights. An international conference can be made the basis of a study in our relations with some or several foreign powers. Immigration, educational enterprises, new public buildings, new proposals for city planning, variations in food prices or clothing prices, all open the way to important studies. The actual project may take many forms. It may be debate on "Resolved, that the League of Nations is the best available method of international discussion." It may be a booklet, illustrated with cuts clipped from the papers and magazines on "The Development of Water Transportation." It may be a series of diagrams or graphs on "The Fluctuation of Good Prices for the Year." It may be a dramatization of some phase of History or Civics as indicated under that sub-head below. "The particular form of the problem," says Mr. Branon, "is not nearly so significant

as the fact of the existence of the problem as a personal problem to the child."[p]

But some precautions must be observed. Not all problems are desirable and not all desirable problems can be used in the junior high school. We are limited by the aim of our work, by the age of the child, by the facilities at our disposal and more especially by the quality of the teachers who handle the work. Besides these limitations, the problem itself should be worth solving, not merely as a mental exercise, but because of the knowledge or ideal involved. Some teachers have attempted to recast all subject matter into project-problem form. Sometimes almost any information or interpretation has been admitted as a part of the discussion, whether contributing to the real aims of the work or not. The teacher should always be critical of the value of projects, and pupils should be trained to evaluate the material.

Dramatization has several times been referred to above. It has much to recommend it to the junior high school teacher of history and civics. The memory and vocabulary are improved, the imagination is stimulated. The pupil is encouraged to reconstruct the scenes, incidents, ideas and situation of the period being studied. Where available, the "source material" may be used to furnish the actual words of the characters represented. The necessary properties may be very simple. In one school the Dutch maidens of New Amsterdam wore winged caps fashioned from sheets of white paper. In another school the members of the Constitutional Convention had cotton-batting wigs. In a Virginia colonial drama a number of the seventh grade boys had Indian play suits while Pocahontas wore a Campfire Girl's dress. The interest and enthusiasm are always high. As a method of review, dramatization, used once every four or five weeks, worked very successfully. The type of dramatization should be adapted to the age of the child. The older the pupil, the more nearly the dramatization may approximate the actual words of the characters represented. For the younger pupils a

[p]Branon, M. E. The Project Method in Education. Page 150.

simpler style is more suitable. Below is a dramatization worked out largely by pupils of the first half of the seventh year:

SCENE—*In early Virginia.*

PERSONS—*Captain John Smith, Powhatan, Pocahontas, Indians, settlers, captain of a ship.*

SCENE I. *Evening in summer. Captain John Smith standing with pail and cup. A group of angry settlers, John, Charles, James, Sidney and Philip.*

James—Captain, I tell you my hands are sore. I have blisters all over them. Why should a gentleman use an ax or hoe? It is none of your business if I swear.

Smith—In my little book I have marked down seven oaths for you. You will work because you want a house and food, and you will do this without swearing. Come here. (James comes.) I am now going to pour cold water in your sleeve for every oath. (Does so. The empty cup is of course used. James shivers and growls—then steps back.)

Philip—How's the water to-day, Jim, pretty cold? Captain, this idea of coming over here to work with an ax is wrong. Cortez and Pizarro did not chop down trees in America. If I wanted to do that I would have stayed home.

Smith—But since you are here you do not want to starve, do you? Come on, five cups for you. Too much swearing around this town. (Philip shivers and winces—"Water is cold, all right.")

Charles—Well, I did not swear once to-day, so you may save your water, Captain.

Smith—Yes, you were lying flat on your back with your ax sticking in a stump. No supper for you. Now, John and Sidney, you did well to-day and need no water. But how about tobacco?

John—Captain, I believe we can make some money with that. I am beginning to like it and we will be able to sell it in England.

Smith—Well, we will hope for the best.

SCENE TWO—*Near the wigwam of Powhatan. Powhatan seated, Pocahontas and other girls moving around. Enter two warriors with Smith between them, a prisoner.*

Powhatan—Who is this you have taken?

Warrior—Oh, Chief, this is the great leader of the pale faces whose wigwams are on the island in the river.

Powhatan—Where was he and what was he doing?

Warrior—He was coming in a big canoe with some warriors of his tribe. When he came ashore we frightened the men in the canoe and took the leader prisoner.

Powhatan—White man, why were you and your warriors coming up to my country?

Smith—We were seeking the shining rocks called gold that my people prize. Also our people need food and we sought the beasts of the forest.

Powhatan—We do not want your people to come up the river. There is not food enough for all my people. Why should your people come to our hunting grounds?

Smith—My people is a great people. When they want food they take it. When we want land for our corn and tobacco we must have it.

Powhatan—Your words are big, but Powhatan is a great chief and can care for his people. The white men quarrel and are sick. Why do they not again go on the Great Canoe and sail back across the Salt Water?

Warrior—If we kill their chief they will be afraid and go back.

Powhatan—Place that stone before me. Now lay the white chief's head upon it.

Pocahontas—Oh, father, you will not kill the white chief?

Powhatan—Girl, we must drive out the white men or we may lose our hunting grounds.

Pocahontas—Father, the white men cannot hurt the people of Powhatan. Why should not the chiefs be friends? (The warriors lay Smith's head upon the stone and take up their clubs.) Father, I do not want you to kill the white chief. (Powhatan hesitates while the warriors swing and test their clubs.)

Powhatan—It is best to kill the chief. Strike. (Warriors swing clubs into the air while Pocahontas bends over Smith's head.)

Pocahontas—I won't let you kill the white chief.

Powhatan—After all, perhaps it is best to be friends. Unbind him. (Pocahontas does so.)

Smith—Chief, you and your daughter will never be sorry for this. The white men and the red men shall be friends.

SCENE II—*In Jamestown. Young men walking around asking each other about crops, corn, tobacco, Indians, etc. Enter Charles.*

Charles—Boys, a ship from England has just been docked. You ought to see the cargo.

James—Cargo! what cargo? I hope they brought out some new axes and a supply of powder.

Charles—Axes and powder! Jim, when you see what's in that ship you'll forget all about axes and powder.

Several—What is it, Charles?

Charles—Girls. What are we going to do now? The captain has some of the finest young ladies you ever saw. And any fellow that can coax a girl to marry him must pay her passage out—140 pounds of tobacco.

(The boys begin to brush their hair, coats, shoes, wash their hands, curl their mustaches, and prink up. Cries of—"Lend me your comb," "Get away from that mirror," "Hey, Jack, got a thread and needle?") Enter several of the girls with expressions of curiosity. Rapid selections. Enter the captain, to whom the boys deliver orders for the tobacco. Arm in arm procession off stage.

As a type of dramatized recitation for eighth year pupils the one given below is a fair sample. It must be understood that the actual work of writing, casting, etc., was done by the pupils, aided by suggestions of materials, books, magazine articles and source material suggested by the teacher. In casting one of the pupils discovered, from his reading, that Jefferson had red hair, so a red headed youth was cast for the part. Similar, but less successful, attempts were made in casting the other characters. The boys pleaded for the violent bath room scene between Napoleon and his brother, proposing to have the characters speak behind a screen—this was vetoed by the teacher.

SCENES—I. *Washington;* II. *Paris;* III. *Washington.*

PERSONS—*Jefferson, Madison, Monroe, Livingston, Napoleon, as Consul, Marbois, Talleyrand.*

SCENE I—*In the office of the President, Washington. Jefferson seated at a desk with some papers that Madison has just given him.*

Jefferson—This letter from Livingston is most disturbing! I thought when I framed that treaty as Secretary of State for Washington that our troubles about the navigation of the Mississippi were over. We are constantly growing in strength in the west. Spain is a weak power, and would soon be in a position where she could not possibly cancel the treaty. All my life I have been friendly to France—but the day that sees Louisiana under the French flag marries America to the fleet of England. If there is one spot in the world, to hold which makes a power the natural enemy of America, it is the mouth of the Mississippi.

Madison—I am afraid that the treaty is a reality. Livingston would not write unless he were sure of his facts.

Jefferson—I am afraid it is. The First Consul intends to revive a French Colonial Empire. General Le Clerc is now in Haiti. If he can hold the island, France will have the needed half-way station. The ships cannot sail all the way to New Orleans, without refilling their water-casks.

Madison—And you will note that Spain has recalled the Treaty.

Jefferson—Shall we try to get a new treaty with the First Consul like the one we had with Spain? Do you think he would give us such a treaty?

Madison—We need something more. Why not try to buy the whole east bank of the river—including New Orleans?

Jefferson—The Constitution, man, the Constitution. What would Hamilton and the Federalists say? Yet that would make us secure forever. The river is a natural boundary.

Madison—Might we not send a special envoy? Livingston would be glad to share the burden and besides we might more safely send verbal instructions than written ones.

Jefferson—Make out a commission for Governor Monroe of Virginia. He is a clever young fellow and his term is just up.

SCENE II. *Paris, Marbois and Livingston are talking.*

Livingston—Mr. Minister, my government would like to know what can be done about the navigation of the Mississippi. Spain no longer owns the land, and we have no treaty. Can we not have the same rights as Spain gave us?

Marbois—I fear the First Consul's plans do not admit of such a treaty. We are making plans to extend the colonies of France. Our faithful veterans will be given farms and plantations in the New Region. But see me in a day or so. (Mr. Livingston goes out. Enter Napoleon as First Consul.)

Napoleon—Marbois, we have bad news from my brother-in-law, very bad news.

Marbois—We have. The greater part of his soldiers in Haiti have had the yellow fever and many have died.

Napoleon—Yes—and there is a rumor—too true. I fear, that Le Clerc himself is dead. The negroes offer wonderful resistance.

Marbois—And we cannot send aid—we do not have enough soldiers and besides England seems restless. Her fleet might cut out our expedition to pieces.

Napoleon—We will be at war with England in a few months. The perfidious nation plans our downfall. We will have hot fighting here in Europe.

Marbois—And what about the American minister's request for a new Mississippi treaty? (Enter Livingston and Monroe.)

Livingston—May I introduce Mr. Monroe, who comes as a special envoy? (Letters presented.)

Napoleon—Well, gentlemen, you would like some word about Louisiana? Your farmers wish to navigate our river?

Monroe—The President has asked me to treat for the purchase of the east bank of the river to its mouth.

Napoleon—Buy some of it? Why not buy the whole? (Marbois looks astonished.)

Monroe—The whole? You mean the land west to the Rocky Mountains? All of Louisiana? (Livingston and Monroe draw to one side and talk earnestly.)

Marbois—Can you be serious? What becomes of our colonial empire? The treaty expressly states that we shall never sell Louisiana.

Napoleon—What shall we do with it then? We cannot hold Haiti. A small English fleet, operating from Jamaica, could take New Orleans in a week, and would do it, too, the moment we declare war. Jefferson has always been our friend and this will bind him to us. He may not declare war on England, but certainly after this he will not on us. Besides, we need money, and the French people hate to be taxed. As for the treaty, what can Spain do?

Marbois—The argument is good—but . . . .

Monroe and Livingston—(Come forward.) At what figure would you sell the entire territory?

Napoleon—One hundred million francs is a fair price.

Livingston—The price is too high. America is not a wealthy nation, and cannot pay it. But we could pay sixty millions.

Napoleon—If you can come to eighty millions we will draw up the papers at once.

Monroe and Livingston—We will sign such a treaty and send it to the President.

SCENE III. *In Washington as in Scene I. Madison comes in hurriedly. He seems much excited. Jefferson is writing at his desk.*

Madison—Mr. President, I have here a most amazing treaty. Monroe and Livingston have bought the whole of Louisiana for $15,000,000. Here is the treaty.

Jefferson—The whole of Louisiana? Fifteen million dollars? What on earth will Hamilton and New England say? Can we get such a treaty through the Senate? Oh, what a mess. Yet it is a wonderful thing also. It nearly doubles the area of the United States.

Madison—Shall you accept the treaty? I think it would be a fine thing.

Jefferson—Jem, you wrote that Constitution. You know as well as I that we have no right to do this. Remember how we got after Hamilton and his bank?

Madison—Yes, but Hamilton got the bank. Our arguments will be turned against us, but we will merely turn Hamilton's against him.

Jefferson—Could we not first get a Constitutional Amendment? Then there would be no trouble.

Madison—There might be trouble—in France. Monroe writes—here's his letter—that the sale is causing great excitement. The First Consul nearly had a fist fight with one of his brothers over it.
Jefferson—Give me the treaty. I shall send it at once to the Senate.

Below is a list of topics suitable for dramatization work in the Seventh year history:

Columbus before Queen Isabella of Castile.
Cortez and Montezuma.
Early Virginia Days—the one cited above.
Early New York Days—or Peter Stuyvesant.
Early New England Days, or Captain Standish.
A New England Town Meeting just before the Revolution.
The adoption of the Declaration of Independence.
The Constitutional Convention.

For the Eighth Grade:

Purchase of Louisiana.
The Monroe Doctrine.
Jackson and Nullification.
Lincoln—selected Scenes.
Meeting of a Labor Union.

For the Civics:

A Court of Justice—a mock trial.
Passing a Bill.
Naturalization Court.
Court of Appeals.

In the field of history and civics there is a fine opportunity for working out the idea of the socialized recitation. Some of the other types of recitation emphasize the subject matter to the exclusion of the child. The socialized recitation emphasizes the pupil and uses the subject matter as a means for the expression of his own ideas and to develop his powers. The old artificial conditions of the classroom and of the recitation are avoided. The children become members of a working community, in which the principles of good citizenship are the rule of work.[p] Briefly stated, the purposes of the socialized recitation are: to

[p] Whitney, W. The Socialized Recitation, p. x.

do away with passivity in the classroom, to provide opportunity for the natural development of initiative, of activity resulting in originality, of the imaginative powers, of the realization and assumption of responsibility; to give opportunity for the child to do and be rather than merely to know.[q] Some of the main points to be noted by the teacher who plans to socialize the recitations are these. Conversations and discussions are to be transferred to the class circle, and to originate among the pupils with the teacher only occasionally drawn in. The teacher should control and guide, but not do the reciting. Freedom should be encouraged as well as a desire to offer additional facts or to make inquiry concerning points discussed. Pupils should note and make corrections. The teacher should remain in the background, coming forward only when necessary. But some of the things that must be guarded against are—pupil teaching, where one pupil dominates the entire period. Many of the more timid pupils fail to volunteer, and as a result a few of the brighter pupils dominate the discussion. The newer freedom may lead to confusion in the room. The criticism may be weak, and there should be no resentment aroused by criticism. The teacher must carefully work over the material and plan the work. The topics and parts of the lesson must be closely watched and if necessary, additional work suggested. Below is a condensed form of the suggestions made by a very successful teacher:

I. The Preparation of the Lesson.

- A. General subjects assigned from the outline of the whole course.
- B. The pupils are then asked to list
  1. Subtopics under the general subjects.
  2. Names and dates that are important.
  3. Some questions arising out of the assignment for discussion in class.
- C. The posting of reading lists.

II. The Recitation period of 45 minutes.

- A. Special reports on research topics—10 minutes.
- B. Discussion of these reports—12 minutes.

[q] Ibid, p. 1.

C. The regular reports on the assigned lesson—12 minutes.
D. The teacher—6 minutes.
E. The assignment—5 minutes.[r]

Whether five minutes is enough for the teacher may be doubted. But on the other hand, one hundred good teachers were recently timed with the following results:

10% talked for 90% of the class period.
20% talked for 70-80% of the class period.
30% talked 50-70% of the class period and not one teacher occupied less than one-third of the time.[s]

Another observer observed twelve teachers who consumed the following percentages of the period respectively: 90, 87, 76, 74, 69, 65, 63, 61, 58, 57, 40 average, 66%.[t]

There may be a good reason for permitting the pendulum to swing another direction.

The socialized recitation has an important part in attaining the desired results in civics, history or current events. The give and take of the open forum, the ability to preside over and manage an assembly, the care due to realization of a free criticism of one's peers and the habits of orderly parliamentary procedure are the social and educational aims realized partly by encouraging the method of the socialized recitation, providing that the proper precautions are taken to avoid the dangers which have been indicated above.

The Laboratory method in history and civics has been urged. In this method the pupils are supplied with magazines, source material, reference books, pictures, models, drawing utensils and other apparatus. A well chosen library of geography, travel, historical fiction, biography, and government reports (city, state and national) is part of the equipment. Actually, it is a refinement and expansion of the project idea. A certain field of history or civics is taken and an attempt is made to write a book . . . the laboratory groups of four or five into which the class is divided being each responsible for a chapter. In the course

[r]Havighurst, H. C. Historical Outlook, Nov., 1921, p. 123.
[s]My Own Observation in Cleveland.
[t]Stevens, R. History Teachers' Magazine, Feb., 1913, p. 52.

of their preparation there are frequent conferences, references, back to the material, criticism, etc. Perhaps Professor Wilgus can explain it better. In the University of Wisconsin he has the history room arranged with tables, chairs and cabinets rather than with the conventional desks. With the material indicated above his pupils prepare reports in the form of chapters of a book upon phases of the material covered. The teacher passes from table to table conferring with the pupils and discussing with them the work already done. He suggests additional reading from time to time, and the recasting or adding of paragraphs. Maps, charts and graphs are prepared and pictures either clipped or actually drawn by the pupils.[u]

As a logical expansion of the project method this method may be commended. But after all are the primary aims of the junior high school . . citizenship, etc., being reached by this method? It is a splendid thing for historians in the making, and a splendid method for authors in the making, only we are not trying especially to make either . . nor can we if we are to do what the public schools must do. And even from the point of view of acquiring information the individual pupils cannot cover the entire field of the semester's work. A pupil's attention is necessarily centered on his own subtopics and he misses the connection.

Finally there is a group of teachers who are hunting for short cuts, and easy paths. They follow willingly and blindly certain blind leaders (who have something to sell) who tell them that the days of book drudgery are limited, and that the new era of educational method is dawning in which the pupil learns his history by pictures—the cinema aided by slides. The film and the slides are useful—as noted in the quotation from Doctor Yocum—but can never replace activities of other kinds. Perhaps all that need be said on this subject has been well said by Doctor Lingelbach: "I am convinced that the lantern should never hold more than a secondary place in the class room, serving to demonstrate or illustrate the ideas of the teacher—the

[u]Wilgus, A. C. University of Wisconsin method as described in Historical Outlook, Jan., 1921, p. 23.

effective, as well as the scientific use of the lantern—is—when it is brought frequently into play for a few moments, emphasizing through the eye the impression obtained through the ears and furnishing additional food for thought at a time when the impressions are first made.[v]

PART IV. MEASURING THE RESULTS OF TEACHING HISTORY

School examinations originated in the Universities of the Middle Ages, where candidates for the various degrees were tested by the masters and doctors of the University. At a later date these examinations were instituted in schools of lower grade in order that the outside authorities might ascertain the quality of the work. These tests were conducted by bishops and others. At a still later date written examinations were given by the teachers of the school itself, partly because the examination by outsiders placed the pupil and the teacher at a disadvantage, and partly to show confidence in the teacher's work. These two reasons were urged when, in 1601, after forty years of "visitation," the written examinations were inaugurated in the Merchant Taylors School of London. Later, both in England and in America came the question of admission to college and the granting of scholarships.[a] In other countries we also can see the development of the testing idea. To graduate from a Prussian Gymnasium requires a five day written and oral examination. In France the examination for the Baccalaureat de l'enseignement secondaire is in two parts, separated by an interval of one year.[b] In America, in 1900, there was instituted the College Entrance Examination Board, on which both the colleges and the secondary schools are represented. President Nicholas Murray Butler, of Columbia, pronounces the Board to be "by far the most useful

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[v]Lingelbach, W. E. (University of Pennsylvania) History Teachers' Magazine, February, 1913.

[a]Monroe, Cyclopedia of Education, II, p. 533.

[b]Encyclopedia Britannica, XI edition, "Examinations."

single force that has ever come into the field of American secondary and collegiate education."[c]

Examinations in some subjects are easy to devise, easy to give, and dependable as to the conclusions that may be drawn. It can be definitely ascertained whether or not a pupil can read Latin or French, or solve problems in mathematics. Most of the sciences can also be tested in a rather complete fashion. But in the case of those subjects which involve, as part of their aim, the building up of social and ethical concepts, the training of volition rather than cognition, the examination is harder to devise, and the conclusions less determinant in their nature. Efforts have, of course, been made to formulate tests of history and civics. Examiners have tried to find out not only what the pupil remembered, but how he thought about the subject, the extent and interest in outside and collateral reading, and the degree of interest aroused. If the examination could be oral, the difficulty would be less. In fact, under the French and Prussian systems, history is listed with those subjects in which the examinations are exclusively oral. The difficulty with a test, even if it involves the memory alone, is that in so large a field a pupil may have a very fair and even comprehensive knowledge of the subject and yet be unable to answer the questions which the examiner might select. Under the College Entrance Examination Board in 1914 only 34.4% of the pupils examined in History obtained a rating of 60 or better in a scale of 100. For all the subjects, over half the pupils, about 52%, made this grade.[d]

The purpose of examinations and tests has been indicated in the discussion of the historical development of these exercises. They may be briefly recapitulated as being designed to prove the "knowledge of capacity of the persons examined in order to determine their fitness for something sought by them, as, a degree, promotion, testimonal of qualification, etc."[e] They have been used in the past, as we have seen, for all of these purposes. To-day we see examinations given by the educational and pro-

[c]College Entrance Examination Board Report, 1914.
[d]College Entrance Examination Board Report, 1914.
[e]Seeley, L. A New School Management.

fessional authorities of a state for the purpose of ascertaining the fitness of a teacher, a physician, a dentist, a lawyer, to practice the professions. They are given by Universities to candidates for the various degrees, also in many cases to candidates for matriculation.

Within the last twenty years another phase of the problem of the results of teaching has been studied. The question of the efficiency of the plant has long been under consideration by farmers and manufacturers. They have been studying the questions of cost and return, and interpreting the results of these studies in terms of efficiency. It occurred to some of the leaders of educational thought in the country that the schools might well undergo such a study. Such studies could not be undertaken without some accurate means of measuring the results of teaching. In the case of the farmer he had the bushel basket. In the case of the manufacturer he had the yard-stick or the carefully adjusted system of weights. Doctor J. M. Rice, a little more than twenty years ago, published his studies applying to the scientific measurement of teaching, amid a storm of protest from the educational leaders and teachers of the country. But when Doctor Thorndyke's study on "The Elimination of Children from School" appeared, and also the studies by Strayer and Elliott on school costs, the application of scientific methods was received with more favor by educators. Soon thereafter the measurement of subject matter by scales and standardized tests became a matter of prime interest with the educational leaders.

The idea of the standard test made rapid progress with the schoolmen. Although the proposal for the appointment of a committee was vigorously opposed at the Philadelphia meeting in 1913, in fact, carrying by only one vote, yet at the Richmond meeting the next year the sentiment had swung overwhelmingly in favor of the movement. Superintendent Bluett, of the St. Louis public schools, was one of those whose conversion was noticeable.

We are coming to the point where the tests are to be thoroughly weighed and judged. Are the fundamental considerations of curriculum making being given due weight? Are we or

are we not testing desirable school products? Will the use of the tests lead to better methods of teaching and better selection of the subject matter? The tests will be used more and more to test the weaknesses of individual pupils and the efficiency of methods of teaching.[f]

The especial problem confronting the teacher of the social studies is important. In some of the subjects taught in the schools as drawing, penmanship, algebra, etc., the pupil is supposed to acquire speed and form. These acquisitions can readily be tested. Can the achievements of the student in the field of the social studies be as readily tested? A number of the tests already worked out will be indicated.

I. Bell and McCullom, Study of the Attainments of Pupils in United States History. This is a test of informational acquisition and retention. The pupil is asked to associate dates and events, men with events, events with men. He is also asked to define historical terms, to name political parties and their principles, and to make a map study.[g]

II. Harlan, C. L., Tests for Information in American History.[h] This is also an informational test. The pupil is asked to consider persons, historical terms, events, places, hypothetical conclusions, causes and effects or results.

III. Starch, D., American History Test.[i] This test is also of the informational type. It consists of sixty-nine blanks which the pupil is asked to fill out with the required information. Professor Starch has arranged this test in several series so that a teacher cannot drill on the information required after one test has been given.

IV. Buckingham, B. R., Correlation Between Ability to Think and Ability to Remember.[j] This test consists of Thought Series A, Information Series A, Thought Series B, and Information Series B. An effort is made to ascertain the degree of correlation, if any, existing between the pupil's memory and

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[f]Wilson and Hoke, How to Measure.
[g]Journal of Educational Psychology, May, 1917, page 257.
[h]Author, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minn.
[i]Author, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis.
[j]School and Society, Vol. V, April, 1917, page 443.

judgment. To illustrate: In Thought Series A we find such questions as these:

1. "For many years after the coming of Columbus, explorers wandered about in the forests of the New World and paddled their canoes up and down its great rivers without thinking very seriously about colonization." What were they thinking about and trying to do? 3. Read the quotation and answer the question below it. "We, the People of the United States, in order to form a more perfect Union, insure domestic tranquillity"—Explain what is meant by the words "In order to form a more perfect Union."

Then Information Series A asks such questions as these:

1. From what nation did the settlers along the Hudson River come? 4. Who were the Copperheads? 8. Name a man who has been Chief Justice of the United States Supreme Court.

The two Series B were markedly more difficult. The idea was that this series should be given to students further advanced in their work than those who received the Series A.

V. Davis, S. B., Tests in United States History, Colonial Period.[k] This is another test designed to ascertain the degree to which the pupil retains information. Doctor Davis has prepared fifty questions, each one followed by an alphabetically arranged list of the possible answers. Several of his questions are here cited as illustrations of his method:

9. The direct route to India by sea was first found by Balboa Columbus DaGama Magellan Vespucci. 28. Henry Hudson explored the Hudson River in command of a Dutch English French Portuguese Spanish fleet.

The correct word to complete the statement is to have a line drawn around it.

VI. Van Wagenan, M. J., Scales in United States History.[l] In these tests an attempt is made to measure information, thought, and character judgment. The tests are, therefore, in three parts. Some of the questions in the informational part of the test are these:

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[k]Author, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pa.
[l]Bureau of Publications, Columbia University, New York.

1. What people did Columbus find in America? 2. Name any American general. 9. What were the two chief occupations of the Indian men? 11. In what war was the battle of Gettysburg fought? The battle of Trenton? The battle of Lake Erie? 18. What important means of communication were invented between 1835 and 1845? Between 1870 and 1880? Between 1895 and 1910?

To illustrate the method employed by Doctor Van Wagenan in working out a suitable thought test, some of the questions he uses will be quoted:

1. Before steamboats were made, people used to travel on the ocean on sail boats. Steamboats were not made until a long, long time after European people came to make their homes in America.

How do you think these early European settlers came to America? 3. A hundred years ago it took a letter several days to go from New York to Boston. To-day it takes only a few hours.

Why do you think it took letters so much longer to go from New York to Boston 100 years ago than it does to-day? 7. In 1829-30 it took over 160 hours of work to raise 50 bushels of wheat; in 1895-96 it took less than seven and one-half hours of work to raise the same amount.

How do you account for the difference?

The character judging test consists of fifteen questions. These questions refer to persons and events up to Johnson's Administration. The general type of question in this part of the test consists in relating some anecdote, below which a list of about ten adjectives is placed. The pupil is asked to select those adjectives that would adequately characterize the person or event under discussion. Number 12 is here quoted for illustration:

"General Smythe was remarkable for long, prosy, interminable speeches in the House of Representatives. On one occasion, in the Committee of the Whole, after having wearied the patience of the members more than usual, he said to Mr. Clay, who sat near him, 'You speak for the present generation, I speak for posterity.'—'Yes,' replied Mr. Clay, 'and you seem resolved to speak until your audience arrives.' Draw a line under three of the following words which you think best describe this action of Henry Clay:

Kind	Humorous	Ignoble	Bitter	Sarcastic
Abusive	Generous	Sympathetic	Cautious	Ready-witted."

VII. Raynor, W. H., American History Test.[m] This test belongs to the informational group and, like that of Doctor Davis, is based upon Bagley's analysis of the elementary history text. It is organized like that of Doctor Starch (above) with blanks to be filled in.

VIII. Barr, A. F., Diagnostic Test in the United States History. The purpose of Mr. Barr is more ambitious than that of any other worker in the field with the possible exception of Doctor Van Wagenan. He plans, when the test shall have been perfected, to test information, thought, reasoning, and judgment. The type of question selected by him calls for historic inference, selection of facts, causal relationships, and imagination. Quotations are used, and answers asked for. The questions are being tried out in the University High School in Chicago.

These various tests are designed to ascertain the achievement of the pupil in various ways. Some of them are tests of the degree to which pupils can discern causal relationships. Some of the things that history is intended to do for the pupil are not tested, yet there is room for further experiment in these fields. To what degree has the study of history contributed to the development of patriotism or responsible citizenship? Have the correct forms of impression control been developed? Has the pupil been stimulated to a wiser use of his leisure time?

For the things these tests are designed to do, they are measurably successful. Note for instance the attempt of Doctor Buckingham to ascertain the degree of correlation between the ability to remember and the ability to think. He finds, in the course of his investigations, that there is a high degree of correlation. Should further investigation verify these conclusions, those tests which attempt to find out how much the pupil remembers will be valuable tests in that as the pupil's memory is developed, so will his thinking powers grow. The tests of Doctor Starch, who has arranged his material in several series of tests rather than in one invariable test, will meet one of the objections which arise from that tendency on the part of the

[m]Author, 19 South LaSalle Street, Chicago, Illinois.

teacher to drill on material which she knows will form the body of the test. Another objection, that the tests attempt to include the entire field of American history in one test, has been met by Doctor Davis in the elaboration of his tests so that now he has seven tests distributed over the entire field, although he started with the colonial field only.

Doctor Van Wagenan's offering in this field recognizes the need for testing other than memory achievement in history. Professors Wilson and Hoke, in criticising the Van Wagenan test, claim that the material is too far removed from the pupil in point of time. It will be remembered that the latest material is in Johnson's Administration. A counter-argument to this contention might assert that some of the more recent material is too controversial for the formation and expression and assertion of judgments.

From the reports of the men who have worked with these tests we find that the pupils forget many of the facts which have been presented in the history lessons. Some classes average as low as 15% of the questions correctly answered, others 33%.

But we cannot fail to realize that the "facts" which have been apparently "forgotten" have, nevertheless, accomplished something in the training of the child. If the pupil can recall only one-third of the things imparted, that does not signify that two-thirds of the time and energy of the pupil and the teacher has been lost or wasted. As has been indicated, the impression control has been modified and improved by these non-recallable sensations, and it must not be forgotten that these impressions and emotions are an important part of the things that the teacher is to accomplish.

One more point concerning the tests. In those tests which attempt to ascertain the degree to which the pupil has retained the facts imparted, we find two general tendencies. One group arrange these tests by the "completion" method. The pupil is to fill in blank spaces on the paper with the proper word so as to complete an accurate historical statement. Another group might be described as attempting the "selective" method. After each statement in the test there are a number of words or dates,

one of which the pupil is to underscore or indicate in some way as the correct one, so that reading the sentence by using the one marked will make a correct historical statement. An experiment was tried in several Cleveland classes with the result that the latter test invariably gave the higher average. The test was tried in this way. The same class was divided into two groups which in the judgment of the teacher were of equal merit; that is, adding up the monthly average of the one group gave the same general percentages as in the other. But when the tests were given with exactly the same questions, the one list arranged for completion and the other for selection, the group receiving the selection list made an average of 11.4% better marks than the group working with the completion list.

Might it be a fair conclusion to assert that the correct word or figure may be recognized when seen among a number of others, while it might not be recalled when there was no suggestion before the eye of the pupil?

These tests are all in the field of history. But the social studies of the junior high school include several other subjects besides history. What shall be done in the field of civics? It is in this field that the impression control is of high importance. The devices for testing impression control are not yet well worked out. The studies of Professor Earl Barnes are, perhaps, familiar to most. He proposes some question as, "Whom do you wish you resembled?" "What do you want to do when you grow up?" "What would you like to be in an imaginary city?" The answers from pupils of different ages, races and social groups are compared and some conclusions are drawn with reference to the child's growth and the changing ideals of different groups and ages. These conclusions of Doctor Barnes should be checked up carefully with other tests before being accepted.

In the civics field an experiment to determine the value of certain materials and methods for the formation of the emotional background for good citizenship was tried out under the guidance of Doctor Yocum's Educational Seminar at the University of Pennsylvania in the spring of 1918, which may throw

some light on certain phases of this problem. The nature of the experiment was, briefly, this: The experimenter selected two groups in the West Philadelphia High School for Boys. These boys were in their ninth year of school work, or first year of the four-year high school course. They were being given a half-year of Community Civics. The experimenter selected a phase of community civics, public health, for the proposed investigation. In developing the impression control the suggestion of Doctor Yocum were utilized. "The vague and intangible feeling that sometimes rises to emotion, based less on the few things we remember than on the myriad we have forgotten, made stronger and stronger as it is reinforced by successive experience involving every possible form of activity, but all resulting in the same impression, may in the end become an ideal, a point of view, a permanent interest which constitutes character and determines action. The longing for home, the attitude of capital toward labor and of labor toward capital, love of country, fear of strong drink, even reverence for the Deity itself, result far less from definite recollection, specific habits, or general discipline, than from the cumulative and, in the end, overwhelming force of a thousand and one petty, forgotten impressions which unitedly tend to a common end." (Culture, Discipline and Democracy, pp. 31-32.)

A large number of statistical, historical and scientific data of an emotional nature in the field covered by the experiment were collected. Perhaps one of the lessons used will illustrate what is meant.

Lesson VI. Observance of Quarantine

GENERAL DISCUSSION:—The laws of the State require that a quarantine shall be placed upon houses from which cases of certain contagious diseases have been reported. A card is placed upon the house warning the public of the presence of the disease, and the people who live in the house are required to stay away from the places of public assemblage. After the sick person has recovered, the house is disinfected and fumigated, and the quarantine removed. For certain diseases, as scarlet fever and small-pox, the quarantine is far more strict than for others.

City and State:—Sometimes it happens that a city or state is found to contain a great number of cases of a particularly harmful disease. The neighboring cities or states then place a quarantine upon all traffic from the infected district. The purpose of this is to prevent the spread of the disease into communities that are free from the infection.

National Quarantine:—At all seaports and places of entry into the country quarantine stations have been established by the Federal Government for the purpose of examining ships and the persons who wish to land from them. This is necessary, because certain countries, not so careful of the health of the people as the United States, have many cases of certain diseases which are not found in our country and we want to keep them out if we can.

EMOTIONAL MATERIAL "A":—Ask pupils to recall cases of quarantine in their own neighborhoods. Find out how carefully the rules were obeyed. Recall to their minds the State quarantine for infantile paralysis in 1916. Note the quarantines established in times past in the South against districts suffering from Yellow Fever.

EMOTIONAL MATERIAL "B":—How the Black Death came to Europe. The Bubonic Plague in San Francisco. The disks on the ship cables in the harbor and their purpose. Methods of quarantine in other times—London in 1666, Philadelphia in 1793. Streets roped off for small-pox (pictures clipped from the papers). The weekly report each Saturday on the number of cases of communicable diseases in the city. Result of a case of scarlet fever in a dairy-farmer's family.

The general discussion was used in both groups. The emotional material "A" was also used in both groups. The variable factor of the experiment consisted in this procedure:—Upon successive days after the lesson had been given, general references to the dangers of breaking quarantine were made. In all, eight such general references were made. These general references were all made in Group I. But in Group II instead of making a general reference only, the eight additional specific details of emotional material listed in "emotional material B" were used. The same procedure was followed in the other seven lessons which comprised the extent of the experiment. In each case the general references were of the same number as the specific references.

The reason for mentioning the experiment at this place is the method used in testing the two classes for the results. Just before beginning the series of eight lessons, this question had

been given to both classes: "Write a list of the things you have recently seen, things due to ignorance, selfishness or carelessness, that tend to injure the health of the community." The result of this question was

Group	*Average number of observations per pupil*
I.	2.3
II.	2.2

After the eight subjects had been given in class, with the variation between the two groups as indicated, the same question was given to both sections with the following result:

Group	*Average number of observations per pupil*
I.	7.6
II.	13.0

The reasons for using this particular way of testing the result were based upon the assumptions that (a) The development of the proper emotional background will stimulate interest, (b) The powers of observation and retention will be quickened by the interest aroused, (c) The facts observed and retained will be reproduced. From the figures given above it will be noted that the number of facts noted was increased very noticeably. But in the second group, the variable factor had so operated as to make the increase much more than in Group I. This experiment, if it determines nothing else, suggests that the question of method is open to experimental determination, or, at least, study.

In the field of Current Events, which is another of the Social Studies listed for the Junior High School, there is little need for a test. Any test given should be for purpose of stimulating interest and arousing curiosity as much as anything. The Philadelphia Germantown Academy prepares from time to time lists of questions which are submitted to the students. These questions are based not only upon Current Events, but also upon other matters of general information. Other schools follow this example with results that are interesting.

Doctor Arthur Dunn, of the Federal Bureau of Education, has given a list of criteria for the valuation of the work in the Civics field which might be worth quoting. They have little to do with formal examinations or with percentages, yet they are of such a nature that the Civics teacher, by keeping them in mind, may be able to improve and modify his subject matter and methods in the direction of a greater degree of efficiency. I. Civics teaching is good in proportion as it makes its appeal definitely and constantly to the pupil's own present interests as a citizen. II. In proportion as it provides the pupil with adequate motives for studying civics, and for participating in the civic life of the community of which he is a member. III. In proportion as it stimulates co-operation among the pupils and on the part of the pupils with others for the common interests of the community. IV. In proportion as it cultivates judgment with reference to a civic situation and methods of dealing with it, and in proportion as it cultivates initiative in the face of such a situation. V. In proportion as it selects and organizes subject matter with reference to its relation to the experience and interest of the pupil.[n]

In the light of these suggestions some of the tests of good civics teaching may be applied to the pupils in the school. But they will not be such tests as will be reduced to printed forms, graphs, correlation tables and percentages. These things are good when we can apply them, and as far as we can apply them. But the teacher should ask, in addition to whatever other and more formal tests are considered:

Does petty thieving diminish? Is there less litter on the floors of the halls, classrooms, and lunchroom? Are the movements in the corridors more orderly? Is there a pride in the condition of the school yard, and an active public sentiment in the student body in favor of keeping things in good condition? Is there more true sportsmanship in interscholastic games—less "win at any price" sentiment? Are scholastic activities widely participated in and fully supported? Is there less need for

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[n]Dunn, Arthur W., History Teachers' Magazine, April, 1915.

classroom discipline? Is there an active, intelligent and aggressive student council?

Is there less rowdyism in the streets? Are the boys' gangs of the neighborhood a menace or an asset in the community? Is there strong interest in cleanliness, good habits, etc.? This list of questions may be extended indefinitely, but every one of them is of interest to the civics teacher. Some, if not all, of the above results may be and have been realized in junior high schools.

In the tests which follow, tests which are being tried out in some of the Cleveland schools, an attempt has been made to remedy some of the defects which have been pointed out in the preceding tests. There is one test for each half year's work. No attempt has been made as yet to formulate a test for the entire two or three years' work of the junior high schedule of history, and the tests in citizenship and civics have not been put into shape as can be studied. These tests, as may be seen by inspection, attempt to ascertain the informational achievement of the student by the completion method. They also try to see to what extent causal relationships have been mastered. The problem of place geography and time sequences has also been attempted, and one question has been inserted for the purpose of finding out whether the pupil has been stimulated in the direction of the wise use of leisure time. The questions asking how the pupil would have voted in certain contingencies are an attempt, however unsatisfactory, to find out how far history has contributed to the development of civic responsibility. Certain words, names of things, places and persons, as well as certain expressions, are inserted in the test for the determination of the contribution of the history study to the pupil's vocabulary achievement. Admittedly the emotion and impression control, arising from the non-recallable stimuli, has not been tested. At present no adequate test—no test of any kind, has been formulated for this important phase of the work. Two study sheets for directors and supervisors have been appended, one for a single class, and one for a group of classes, as indicated.

TEST PROPOSED FOR UNITED STATES HISTORY, PERIOD UP TO 1760.

I. Fill out the blank spaces with the proper words in these sentences.

A man whose name was_____, who was born in the city of_____ in the country of_____sailed from the country of_____across the Atlantic, searching for_____and discovered America in the year_____A. D.

II. Fill in the blanks, those before the word "for" with the names of American places
those after the word "for" with the names of European places

Cortez conquered_____
for_____
Hudson explored _____
for_____
Champlain explored_____
for_____
Captain John Smith helped settle
_____for_____

III. Give some event connected with each of these words, or the definition of the word:

wigwam
wampum
Mayflower
redemptioner
Mt. Vernon
Puritan
Quaker
Huguenot
Fountain of Youth
Charter Oak

IV. Arrange these events in the order in which they occurred, placing the figure 1 before the earliest, the figure 2 before the next earliest, and so on to the latest:

____King William's War
____Settlement of Jamestown
____Magellan sails around the world
____Settlement of Pennsylvania
____The French and Indian War

V. These are some of the reasons why people leave home and go to other lands to form colonies: To secure religious liberty, to secure political liberty, to find gold, to earn a better living, because of the love of adventure. Write the one you thing correct after each of the statements below:

People came to Massachusetts
People came to Virginia
People came to Maryland
People came to Mexico
People came to Cleveland

VI. Locate each of these places on the outline map by placing the figure you see before the name at the corresponding place on the map:

1. Boston
2. New Amsterdam
3. Philadelphia
4. Baltimore
5. Lake Champlain
6. Delaware Bay
7. Chesapeake Bay
8. Mouth of the Connecticut River
9. The "Forks of the Ohio"
10. Eastern End of the Mason and Dixon Line

VII. In the first column are mentioned a number of events. In the second column are listed other events. If you can find, in the second column, an event that was caused by some event in the first column, place before the second column statement the same figure that you see before the statement that you consider the cause.

1 English settlements grew more rapidly than the French
2. Champlain helped the Algonkins in a fight against the Iroquois
3 The Puritans of England were oppressed 1620 to 1640
4 The Puritans controlled England from 1640 to 1660
5 The Dutch Company refused self-government to New Amsterdam
6 English army men disregarded the advice of Colonial officers

__Many settlers came to Massachusetts between 1620 and 1640
__The English cleared the land and farmed. The French hunted furs
__Aristocratic people came to Virginia in large numbers 1640 to 1660
__The Iroquois bitterly hated the French for many years
__General Braddock's forces were defeated and he was killed
__People of New Amsterdam refused to resist the English fleet

VIII. If you had been present at the occasions below, how would you have voted? Give one reason for answer.

1 Council of Salamanca. Question, Is it wise to help find the western road to the Indies?_____

2 House of Burgesses, Virginia. Question, Shall we declare war on the Indians against the wishes of the Governor Berkeley_____
_____

3 Massachusetts Assembly. Question, Shall the bill prescribing punishments for the Quakers become a law?_____
_____

4 Salem, Massachusetts, a trial jury. Question, Shall we find the prisoner guilty of witchcraft?_____
_____

IX. Of all the things we have been studying about, are there any about which you would like to read some additional facts or stories? Indicate

not more than five. (If you do not care to read any more than you have found in the textbook, please say so.)

1_____
2_____
3_____
4_____
5_____

TEST PROPOSED FOR UNITED STATES HISTORY, PERIOD 1760-1815.

I. Fill in the blank spaces with the proper words in these sentences:

A Convention to draw up a Constitution was held in the city of_____ in the summer of_____and was presided over by_____ When given to the States for action, a party called_____favored having it adopted while the_____opposed it.

During Washington's Administration Jefferson and his friends favored the_____nation in foreign affairs, while Hamilton and his friends favored the_____

II. Using only the words "army," "navy," "victorious" and "defeated" fill in the blank spaces in these sentences:

The American_____was_____at Germantown
The American_____was_____at Yorktown
The British_____was_____at Saratoga
The American_____was_____at the battle on Lake Erie
The British_____was_____at New Orleans

III. Either define or give some event associated with each of these words:

Navigation Act
frigate
General Burgoyne
Valley Forge
Aaron Burr
Contraband of War
Cotton Gin
Robert Fulton
Rochambeau
"I have not yet begun to fight"

IV. Arrange these events in the order in which they occurred, by placing the number 1 before the earliest, the number 2 before the next, and so on to the latest:

____The Surrender at Yorktown
____The Boston Tea Party
____The election of President Madison
____The Battle of Fallen Timbers
____The Constitution and the Guerriere

V. Place the number before the name of the place at the correct place on the outline map:

1. Boston
2. Saratoga
3. Trenton
4. Washington
5. Lake Erie
6. Niagara
7. New Orleans
8. Savannah
9. Charleston
10. Long Island

VI. In the first column below are listed a number of events, also in the second column. If you can find one in the second column that happened as a result of any one in the first column, place before the second column event the same number as you see before the one you think caused it.

1. The Articles of Confederation failed to give a strong government.	__The western farmers rebelled at a tax on whiskey.
2. Corn could not be taken across the mountains and sold at a profit.	__Jefferson tried to obtain New Orleans and actually bought Louisiana.
3. The western farmers could easily ship goods down the Mississippi.	__The present Constitution of the United States was adopted.
4. In the early part of the XIX century there were no wireless or cables.	__Slavery never secured a hold in the wheat and corn region.
5. The grain harvester was invented 50 years after the cotton-gin.	__The battle of New Orleans was two weeks after the treaty of peace was signed.

VII. Tell how you would have voted if you had been present, and give the reason why you would have voted that way.

1. The Continental Congress. Ques. Shall the United States adopt the Declaration of Independence?_____

---

2. Member of a state convention in 1788. Ques. Shall I vote for the adoption of the New Constitution?_____

---

3. The Presidential Election of 1800. Ques. Shall I vote for Jefferson or Adams?_____

---

4. The Congress of the United States. Ques. Shall I vote for Hamilton's new United States Bank?_____

---

5. A New England Legislature in the summer of 1812. Ques. Shall we support the war against England?_____

VIII. Would you like to read up on some of the subjects more than you can find in the textbook? If so, indicate not more than five such topics about which you would like to read more. (If you do not care to read more, please say so.)

1. _____ 2. _____
3. _____ 4. _____
5. _____

SUGGESTED TEST FOR UNITED STATES HISTORY, PERIOD OF 1815 TO 1865.

I. Fill out the blanks in the sentences below:
The construction of the_____helped the development of the Great Lakes Region. President_____worked against the Second United States Bank. General_____led the Southern Army into Pennsylvania and on July 1, 2, 3, 1863, a decisive battle was fought at_____in which the Southern Army was_____

II. Fill in the first space in each sentence below with the name of some political party, and the second space with such words as will indicate the party's attitude towards the point indicated:

1. The_____believed that slavery should be_____
2. The_____believed that the U. S. Bank should be_____
3. The_____believed that we_____fight Mexico
4. The_____believed that we_____internal improvements

III. Define or associate some fact with each of these words:
Monroe Doctrine
Nullification
Missouri Compromise
Dred Scott
Mormons
Cyrus McCormick
S. F. B. Morse
McClellan

Edwin Stanton
Jefferson Davis

IV. Indicate the earliest of these events by placing the figure 1 before it, the next by the figure 2, and so on with all the others.
The capture of the City of Mexico
The capture of Vicksburg
Nullification in South Carolina
Discovery of gold in California
John Brown's raid at Harpers Ferry

V. Place the number before the name at the proper place on the outline map to show the location of the place:

1. Richmond	5. Kansas	9. Missouri Compromise Line
2. Harpers Ferry	6. Gadsden Purchase	
3. Rio Grande	7. Sabine River	10. Lincoln's Birth-state
4. West Virginia	8. Atlanta	11. St. Louis

VI. Do you care to read up on any of the topics you have studied this semester, more than you can find in the textbook? If so, please write the topics in which you are interested below. (If you do not care to read any more, please say so.)

1_____
2_____
3_____
4_____
5_____

VII. If in the second column you can find some event that was the result of some cause mentioned in the first column, place the same number before the result that you see before the cause.

1. A great deal of machinery was being introduced into industry	__The whig party died because they could not withstand the abolitionists
2. Railroads were introduced and improved	__Very few factories grew up south of the Mason and Dixon's Line
3. Slave labor is very rarely skilled labor	__The cities were growing in population more rapidly than the country
4. The whigs voted for the Compromise Fugitive Slave Law	__The Western States were growing up rapidly
5. The North received many more immigrants than the South	__The Civil War completely exhausted the resources of the South
6. The North thoroughly blackaded the South in the Civil War	__United States became a great food-exporting nation

VIII. If you had been present, how would you have voted and why?

1. The Legislature of South Carolina. Question, Shall we declare a law of the Federal Government null and void?_____

---

2. The Senate of the United States. Question, Shall we ratify the treaty fixing the boundary of Oregon at Parallel 49?_____

---

3. The Congress of the United States. Question, Shall we declare war on Mexico?_____

---

4. The Congress of the United States. Question, Shall we pass the fugitive Slave Law?_____

---

5. The Presidential Election of 1860. Question, Shall I vote for Lincoln Electors?_____

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